DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 195 600 UD 020 922

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TITLE Multi-Ethnic School Environments: Final Report FY 1978-79. Volume I: Overview and Research Design.
INSTITUTION Far West Lab. for Educational Research and Development, San Francisco, Calif.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
REPORT NO MESE-79-1a
PUB DATE Jan 80
CONTRACT OB-NIE-G-78-0203
NOTE 97p.: For related documents see UD 020 923 and UD 021 120.

EDRS PRICE MF02/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Classroom Desegregation: Elementary Secondary Education: *Ethnography: *Inservice Teacher Education: Racial Integration: *Research Design: *Research Methodology: *School Desegregation: Social Science Research

ABSTRACT

The Multi-Ethnic School Environments Study evolved in response to the need for a research base for identifying special teacher training needs in newly desegregated school districts. The ultimate goal of this five year project is to generate teacher training processes and materials to aid teachers in coping with the realities of desegregation. The first phase (1978-1979) was a year of ethnographic research which examined teachers' efforts to organize their classrooms and to encourage the integration of students in newly desegregated classes. This volume of the research report begins with a discussion of critical concerns related to school desegregation. The next section addresses the issues surrounding methodology: the appropriateness of applying educational ethnography to research on desegregation. After noting the problems faced in establishing a site for the research, the next section describes data collection procedures. The final section describes the format, scope, and strategies of data analysis procedures. (Author/MK)

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Multi-Ethnic School Environments

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Final Report FY 1978-79

VOLUME I: OVERVIEW AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Leonard C. Beckum
Stefan J. Dasho

Report MESE-79-1a

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FAR WEST LABORATORY FOR EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

MULTI-ETHNIC SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS PROJECT

FINAL REPORT FY 1978-79

VOLUME I: OVERVIEW AND RESEARCH DESIGN

LEONARD C. BECKUM
STEFAN J. DASHO

REPORT MESE 79-1a

The work reported herein was supported by the National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare under Contract No. OB-NIE-G-78-0203. The opinions expressed in this publication do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of NIE, and no official endorsement by NIE should be inferred.

AUG 1 8 1980

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The cooperation, skills, and tenacity of many people have contributed to the completion of this work and are gratefully acknowledged. In particular, the help of the assistant superintendent and his coordinator in the school district was invaluable in gaining entrée to the community and in recruiting teachers for the project. We appreciated the four teachers' willingness to allow us to intrude on their classrooms and their candor in providing us with their daily insights. All names used in the report for people and places in the school district of "Valley City" are pseudonyms.

No ethnography can be better than its eyes and ears. We were fortunate to have a highly capable crew of ethnographers in Mildred Pagelow, Bernard James, Avis Ridley, Dana Bleitz-Sanburg and James Brady. Their sensitivity to classroom dynamics in the face of herculean note-taking and tape-dictating demands was laudable.

Our advisory panel members helped us with the difficult task of designing a multidisciplinary analysis strategy. In particular, Drs. Nathaniel Gage and Ogle Duff are acknowledged for their valuable revisions of preliminary analyses.

Our data analysts overcame their apprehensions about tackling qualitative research and synthesized thousands of pages of descriptive data. Dr. Joanne R. Whitmore, Dr. Colet M. Hopkins, Dr. Gene N. Levine, Dr. Christopher M. Clark, Dr. Charles D. Moody, Sr., and James Brady offered us their wisdom and insight.

Our support staff needs to be congratulated for withstanding the many rearticulations of the form and substance in our drafts. Thanks to: Tamara O'Brien for coordination; Theda De Jesus for supervising the transcription of field notes; Glen Harvey for editing preliminary drafts; Dawn Hobbs and Kim Kelly for typing the manuscript; Julie McCullough for graphics, typing and editing; and Kathryn Hughes for editing and consultation.

Finally, we must thank Dr. Oscar Uribe of the National Institute of Education for his patience, as well as his enthusiasm and faith in the project. Throughout the design modification of this exploratory phase, he has provided positive criticism.

It is our hope that this report on life in four classrooms will be of use to other researchers, teacher trainers, and teachers in identifying common problems teachers face in desegregating settings. For us it has been a truly provocative unfolding of the complexities we can expect in engineering social change in schools.

LCB

SJD

San Francisco

January 1980

PREFACE

The MULTI-ETHNIC SCHOOL ENVIRONMENTS STUDY is a project funded by a grant from the National Institute of Education. This project evolved in response to the need to produce a research base for identifying what, if any, special teacher training should occur in newly desegregated school districts. The overall goal of this research is to generate, over five years, teacher training processes/materials to aid teachers in coping with the realities of desegregation.

During the study's first phase (1978-79), ethnographic research examined teachers' efforts to organize their classrooms and encourage the integration of students in several newly desegregated classrooms. The purpose of this activity was to explore conditions unique to each school setting and to document actual strategies and techniques employed by dissimilar teachers. The ethnographers narrated daily tapes based on their detailed field notes of classroom events. Teachers contributed to the data collection in interviews and by tape-recording their perceptions on a daily and weekly basis.

A team of data analysts representing diverse research perspectives--including educational psychology, sociology, and desegregation--reviewed the data generated by both observers and teachers. The analysis team then studied the effects and implications of the various teachers' strategies, including the extent to which they furthered the goals of pluralistic education. Project staff synthesized the analysts' reports and made recommendations for future training needs specific to the desegregated setting.

Significant findings of this study will be explored in other school settings in collaboration with teachers and site administrators. One possible outcome of this study will be the development of a training model for addressing the needs in these schools and the applicability of the model to other desegregated settings.

The report has been organized as three volumes:

Volume I: Overview and Research Design

Volume II: Classroom Case Studies

Volume III: Findings and Implications

Volume I begins with a discussion of the critical issues related to school desegregation which prompted this study. In the Methodology section, which follows, the appropriateness of applying educational ethnography to research on desegregation is addressed. The design considerations of naturalistic exploratory research are viewed here--in terms of factors like multiple perspectives on the classroom and problems in assuring authenticity. Following the discussion of methodology, data collection and analysis procedures are described. After noting the problems faced in establishing a site for the research, the Data Collection Procedures section covers the following ground: selection of target classrooms, recruitment and training of ethnographers, assessment of observer trustworthiness, the assignment of observers to the classroom, procedures for ethnographic data collection, preparation of participating teachers, teachers' data-reporting procedures, field monitoring, and meetings with the advisory panel and data analysts. The Data Analysis Procedures section begins with a description of the evolution of the format and scope of the analysts' work. The data analysts and advisory panel members are then described, and the data analysis strategies are detailed.

Volume II portrays life in four classrooms. The case studies presented here are introduced by background information on the community, the school district and the desegregation plan. Each of the case studies describes the setting (school and classroom), performers (teacher, students, and other classroom personnel), teacher's beliefs and expectations, instructional practices and the social order of the classroom.

In Volume III, four data analysts review the case study from different points of view. The four topics presented are: anticipatory socialization for tomorrow's society, socioemotional issues, instructional strategies and decision making, and administrative policy issues.

These four papers are followed by the findings and conclusions drawn by the investigators from the analysts' and ethnographers' work. The conclusions address a range of topics--the state of desegregation in the district, the effects of desegregation on socialization of students, implications for teacher training, implications for research methodology, and directions for further research.

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A. INTRODUCTION

1. Problem Statement

America-a quarter century after Brown v. the Board of Education--continues to rely upon its public educational system as an institutional vehicle to correct inequality of opportunity. Desegregation continues day-by-day in the schools amidst the controversies, resistance, litigation, and emotionalism. The nation's teachers are on the front line in this experiment in social change. Rectifying the disturbing disparities in the educational system rests on the skills of teachers as well as intelligent desegregation planning at the district level. Clearly, egalitarian methods for desegregated education must be developed and implemented. What constitutes desirable practices for promoting student achievement and improving intergroup attitudes in desegregating schools has remained ambiguous, however, despite the myriad programmatic statements on the requirements of pluralistic education.

The overall goal of equal educational opportunity requires schools to move beyond desegregation (mixing of formerly isolated students of different ethnic backgrounds) toward social integration (the mutual respect for cultural differences and the reduction of social distance). Desegregation alone cannot address the well-documented detrimental effects of minority-group isolation (Kline, 1969; Jackson, 1973; U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, 1976). Some of the problems that have been identified are discussed below.

a. Low achievement of minority students

Much of the lower achievement of minority students has been due to the inability of teachers to instruct cross-culturally or to design instructional methods responsive to different learning styles. While the problems to be

faced have received substantial documentation, the solutions have been more difficult to determine. Educational researchers have contributed recommendations for designing effective instructional practices (Stallings, 1978), classroom management practices (Brophy & Evertson, 1976), and environments that promote equal status interactions (Cohen, 1972; Cohen & Roper, 1972; Katz, Goldston & Benjamin, 1958; Devries, Edwards & Slavin, 1978; Johnson & Johnson, 1978). However, extensive reviews of desegregation studies by St. John (1975), Cohen (1975), and Weinberg (1977) have produced equivocal results. Practitioners cannot, at this point, rely upon aggregated findings to solve the staff development and evaluation needs specific to their community, school, and classroom settings. As Gay (1977) concludes:

> Although there is a large and growing body of data now available on the conceptualization of multicultural education and ethnicity and suggestions for school programs for students, there is relatively little information on preparing teachers to implement multicultural education programs. Yet, almost without exception, the advocates of multicultural education agree with the classic observation that while curricular materials are important, it is the teacher and what he or she does in the class that, in the final analysis, make the difference as to what happens in the educational process.

b. Cross-cultural problems

Much research has been devoted to documenting ways that minorities are penalized in their educational careers for culturally-derived characteristics, orientations, or interactional styles. In addition to issues of blatant prejudice, cross-cultural communication is fraught with difficulties that can result in misunderstanding and/or negative evaluation. Barna (1972) suggests five sources of these problems: language, nonverbal behavior, stereotyped expectations, hasty evaluations of the meaning of interactions without considering the intended meanings, and anxiety. While vehemently disagreeing about causes and resolutions of the phenomena, Bernstein (1971)

and Labov (1978) have both demonstrated ways that linguistic behavior maintains social stratification among students. Interactional competencies, such as knowing when it is appropriate to talk, are culture-bound (Boggs, 1972; Phillips, 1972). Interactional "stumbles" (Bremme & Erickson, 1978); placement in ability groups (Rist, 1970);and assessments of students' intelligence, readiness and maturity (Cicourel, et al., 1974; McDermott, 1974, 1976) may be the by-products of evaluations based on interactional styles.

Recent work on the existence of ethnic preferences for different cognitive styles (Ramirez & Castañeda, 1974) suggests that learning as well as values and communication styles may create interactional troubles. Interactional troubles caused by racial, ethnic, and class differences may account for some of the attributions teachers make about students' behavior which in turn result in negative expectations about students' abilities or motivations. The controversial Pygmalian Effect (Rosenthal, 1968) has called attention to the existence of self-fulfilling prophesies; i.e., a teacher's expectations of student performance cause their own fulfillment because of conscious or unconscious differential treatment on the part of the teacher. While the results of subsequent studies have qualified the generalizability of this phenomenon (see a review by Brophy & Good, 1974; and Cooper, 1979), there is little doubt that minority students must contend with the adverse effects of discrimination. Riles (1970) found that white teachers held moderately low to very low expectations for the academic success of black, Mexican-American, and other low-income students. Fuchs and Havighurst (1972) found that two-thirds of the teachers of Native-American children who were sampled shared prevalent stereotypical conceptions about Native Americans.

The effects of such expectations on students have been extensively documented. For example, Deutsch (1967) supports the notion of self-fulfilling

prophecy with evidence that black children have more significantly intense negative self-images than white children.

c. Disproportionately high disciplinary actions

The disproportionately high incidence of referral, suspension, expulsion, and other disciplinary actions involving minority-group students is well documented (Children's Defense fund, 1975; NIE Safe School Study, 1978; Duke, 1978). The inability of teachers to effectively manage their ethnically diverse classrooms has resulted in their strong concern for discipline. It has been suggested that a variety of factors may be associated with this disproportionately high emphasis, including the following: racism, ineffective communication between staff and students, lack of appropriate technical training enabling staff to deal meaningfully with minority-group students, ineffectual counseling services, culturally biased curriculum, and outmoded methods for reducing student misbehavior.

In schools that are newly desegregated but not yet integrated, these factors may produce magnified effects. School personnel may find it overwhelmingly difficult to cope with a heterogeneous student body that does not respond to usual controls. Students may be unaware of or unable to live up to the expectations of teachers, administrators, and non-minority parents whose children are coming in contact with minority students for the first time. Furthermore, teachers who have had little or no previous experience with minority students may employ inappropriate disciplinary procedures because they possess distorted impressions of disciplinary problems involving minority students. Teachers tend to view Mexican Americans, blacks, and other minority-group members in terms of commonly held stereotypes. These stereotypes tend to lead to inappropriate or unnecessary disciplinary action.

d. Alienation

Disciplinary problems are only the most obvious evidence of the impact of social isolation on minorities in desegregated schools. Donnelly (1970) noted the pervasive alienation of minority students in desegregated schools. McBurnette and Kunetka (1976) found that personal isolation of students resulted in higher frequency of physical and verbal harassment from members of different ethnic groups, while Clark (1950, 1955) demonstrated that group isolation leads to socially disruptive relations between white and minority groups. Since alienated students are not motivated by commitment to the long-range goals of education, they develop other allegiances to provide stimulation and rewards. In settings where teachers must compete with strongly held student agendas, the time available for instruction and the quality of educational practices must suffer.

In light of the issues discussed above, the purpose of this study is to look at desegregating classrooms in order to identify what preparation or training teachers may require to meet the needs of students from diverse ethnic backgrounds. To do this we have examined the way several elementary school teachers have tried to create classroom environments that they believe will help mitigate the many social processes that contribute to social inequality. The discussion which follows explains the ways these classroom systems were examined.

The problems discussed above concerning ethnic, cultural and class differences, gaps in achievement in skill areas, and the sedimented socio-emotional effects of school failure among teacher and students result in highly complex challenges for teachers. Most teachers, regardless of training and experience, are aware of the difficulties of mixing students from ghettoes and barrios with middle-class white students. The conventional

wisdom tells them that the legacies of desegregation are disciplinary problems, feelings of helplessness in trying to "reach" or motivate students, and uncertainty about how to provide for remedial instruction with existing resources. Teachers facing a classroom of students from different ethnic backgrounds for the first time ask themselves questions such as:

How will I meet the academic needs of such diverse children?

How will I handle conflicts?

How will I maintain order in the classroom?

Will I have to put in more prep time?

What "line" will I take about cultural differences?

Should I change my standards of acceptable work?

Should I make a special effort to get the students together or just let them work it out?

Should I ask for help?

And teachers' answers to their own questions are based on their pedagogical beliefs, past experiences, and personal situations. Their successes and failures reflect the objective conditions they face as well as the strategies they employ.

The teacher in the desegregated classroom is faced with multiple agendas and responsibilities. Like other teachers, there is concern for implementing a curricular program consisting of discrete or incremental instructional units and organized into a daily activity schedule. He/she is concerned with "getting through the day" with a minimum of trouble. The actions of students and adults under his/her authority are organized through the creation of routines, systems of rewards and punishments, and delegation of specified long- and short-term responsibilities to aid in the classroom management process. For

teachers, survival within the institution--i.e., being perceived as a competent and successful teacher, avoiding the disapproval of students, parents, peers, and administration--is a constant quest.

2. Purpose of the Study

The Multi-Ethnic School Environments (MESE) Project was funded by the National Institute of Education to generate and implement training procedures that could help teachers cope with newly desegregated classrooms. The subject of this report is the project's first phase--a description study of teaching in newly desegregated schools. By examining teacher-student instructional and social interactions, we were able to assess how desegregation affected teachers' practices and the ways teachers did or did not further the goals of school integration. The detailed chronicling of teacher-student interactions provided a broad research base for characterizing school life. This approach was particularly suited to exploratory work because different methods of assessing data could be accommodated. In contrast to schemes that attempt to generate generic models or to isolate the effects of discrete teaching behaviors, the MESE Project documented the hows and whys of teachers' responses to the desegregation of their individual classrooms.

The primary focus of these explorations is *socialization*--i.e., the process whereby students come to understand, perform in and develop commitments to the normal (normative) forms of school life. School socialization may be studied from a number of vantage points: institutional arrangements, pedagogical practices, human relations, value inculcation, social stratification, etc. No single point of view suffices. Each of these topics is germane to an examination of what preparation teachers and students need in order to grapple with the impact of desegregation on their lives. Social change, mandated by courts or school boards, impacts on all normal functions and interactions in a school.

While teachers control some of the ways that students are socialized, they also respond to the needs and demands of each group of students. This

study focussed on the ways teachers accommodated their ways of organizing the classroom social system to the constraints imposed by the desegregation process. What these constraints consist of could not be specified in advance and was therefore taken to be an open question. Historically, teachers, students, and administrators have experienced difficulties in adjusting to desegregation. These difficulties directly and indirectly have affected teachers' work routines (e.g., diagnosis and prescription, getting students to stay on task, establishing classroom routines, etc.) Contributing to these difficulties are the additional responsibilities of learning about multicultural curriculums, adjusting to cross-cultural communications and encouraging students to overcome social isolation. Desegregation may change how teachers get students to turn in their math assignments as well as how they emphasize Martin Luther King Day or Cinco de Mayo. Teachers must effectively control the attitudes and behavior of their support personnel as surely as they must handle racially-related conflicts among students.

Further, the normal forms of school life involve more than pedagogical concerns. School life includes the preparation of a new generation of students for adult roles, administrative accountability, the exercise of power--both mandated and personal--by administrators and teachers, and interpersonal relations among students and staff. Thus, to the extent that desegregation affects the day-to-day actions that compose social relations in the schools, some, if not all, of the participants will become resocialized in many ways.

Daily activities can serve several purposes simultaneously. For example, teachers can exact commitment from students to the moral order of the school by defining the practical situations that require students to follow role-prescribed behavior. For this reason, while classification schemes,

such as Bidwell's (1971), can offer analytical distinctions between practical and moral socialization, the meaning of classroom interactions defies simple categorization.

Waller (1932) was the first sociologist to identify ways that student behavior is controlled through the staging of conventional situations that maintain a social order. A teacher can explicitly control social and institutional mechanisms of reward and punishment (Dreeben, 1968), and can implicitly maintain his/her own definitions of situations through such means as controlling the explicitness of the class agenda, organizing formats for activities and preventing students from becoming aware that a negotiation process is occurring(Scheff, 1967). Thus the authority of the teacher is made available and is sustained through the explicit and tacit understandings underlying classroom routines.

At the beginning of each school year, even in multicultural classrooms, negotiation occurs as teachers' and students' expectations and demands are mutually shaped into patterns of routines, interpersonal assessments, and relationships. In desegregating classrooms this negotiation process may be hampered by any of the disjunctions in cultural values or orientations that were discussed earlier (see page 3). We expected to find some of the (by now) cliched interactional troubles--for example, a teacher seeking "respectfulness" from a Mexican-American child by demanding eye contact, when in the child's culture respect for adults is demonstrated by downcast eyes. More importantly, we wanted to document how teachers and students, faced with practical problems in getting through their routines, manage to overcome these difficulties. In doing so, the study is not only concerned with whether or not teachers solve problems of organizing concerted activities, but also if these social forms reproduce or correct inequality of opportunity

and social distance among students of different backgrounds.

By the time they enter the fifth grade, students have adapted to different situations in their five or more years of experience in accomplishing their roles. Similarly, teachers view teaching in desegregated schools as basically no different from pre-desegregation teaching--adjustments may need to be made, just as they have been made each year. Teachers' and students' habitual role expectations for school life have resulted in an ethnic and social stratification that will affect their performances in desegregating classrooms. The anthropologist Ogbu (1978) states that both the prevailing opportunity structure for minorities in a society and the family socialization structure are variously reflected in the values children place on work and school skills. Yet, as British sociologists of education point out (Esland, 1972; Esland, Dale, & Sadler, 1972; Flude & Ahier, 1974), teachers rely mainly on their own class values as the moralistic foundation of the classroom workplace. Sociolinguistic and micro-sociological analyses (Bernstein, 1971, 1973, 1975; Cicourel, et al., 1974) have suggested that moral socialization permeates conversation and produces social and academic stratification. Labov's analysis (1978) of how students' competence is assessed through their verbal responses in intelligence-testing situations reveals how "correct" moral socialization is a prerequisite of success:

> Through all testing procedures, we encounter questions posed to test the child's allegiance to the disciplinary principles of the school system rather than his perception or grasp of meanings. We can only conclude that such questions are good predictors of a child's school performance and find their way into the test situations because without such moral alignment a child is bound to have trouble getting through school. (p. 16)

As the examples from these various authors show, the analyses of classroom interactions, however mundane and routine, are critical for determining not only whether desegregation will be "problematic" for the teacher, but also

the extent to which the values of pluralistic education will be fostered.

The arguments sketched above present classroom socialization as a process of negotiated understandings between teachers and students that tend to be "loaded" in favor of prevailing values and social stratification. The desegregation/integration process can be seen as a resocialization effort seeking to promote other values. Consequently, it must restructure the normal forms of schooling. In designing this study, we looked at the research of linguists, sociologists and anthropologists, as well as that of educational psychologists. By examining the practices of teachers in newly desegregated schools, we reasoned that we could identify effective skills, techniques and strategies. Given this orientation, the study has the following research objectives.

3. Statement of Research Objectives

Two general premises directed the study: first, the classroom is a social system that teachers modify in order to accommodate their perceived needs (both personal and institutional) and goals (both personal and pedagogical); second, the process of desegregation complicates the process of socializing pupils into the social order. Teachers must confront students who differ noticeably in attitudes, behavior, and academic skills.

Having made these assumptions, we posed the following question: How does desegregation affect the teacher's success in organizing a social order that can promote learning, encourage social integration, and avoid trouble? With this question in mind, the MESE project initiated exploratory research to examine teaching in newly desegregated schools. Our long-term goal was to identify teaching skills that could be used for inservice training of teachers in other settings. The objectives for the exploratory phase were:

- To document the ways teachers accommodate their instructional systems to meet the needs of desegregation
- To describe problems identified by teachers as unique to the desegregated classroom
- To describe how differences in school characteristics create differences in the socialization processes students undergo in adjusting to those schools
- To evaluate the contention that teaching skills required in the desegregated setting are demonstrably different from those required in the conventional classroom setting
- To describe inservice training needs specific to the four classrooms
- To make general recommendations for teacher training needs in desegregated settings
- To propose areas needing closer examination in future research

To address these objectives, we structured our analysis of the naturalistic observations of newly desegregated classrooms according to four topic areas: 1) academic programs and teacher decisions about instructional activities; (2) the impact of academic and classroom management practices on the socioemotional lives of the students; (3) the moral socialization of students; and (4) the administrative practices at the school and district level that defined the district's desegregation effort at the time. The ways that these areas were addressed are described in detail in later sections of this volume. The next section of this report presents the methodology employed in the study.

B. METHODOLOGY

This section of the report presents the rationales for the research strategies employed in the MESE study. The discussion opens with an overview of the ways educational environments may be investigated using naturalistic field research. Following this overview are considerations that shaped the design of a research strategy for addressing the complex questions raised by the study.

1. The Application of Educational Ethnography to Research on Desegregation

a. Discovering social order in classroom interaction

While ethnographic methods have prevailed since the 1920's in anthropology--and, likewise, have enjoyed popularity in sociology--educational ethnography in the United States had its infancy in the mid-sixties. Since that time the problems of urban education and minority isolation have been addressed in only a handful of field studies (Smith & Geoffreys, 1968; Eddy, 1969; Cazden, John & Hymes, 1972; Rist, 1973, 1978; and the Field Studies in Urban Desegregated Schools Program of the National Institute of Education, forthcoming). More studies have focussed on school socialization or description of classroom routines (Henry, 1966; Jackson, 1968; Leacock , 1969; Rist, 1970; Wilson, 1972; Tikunoff, Ward & Dasho, 1978; Delamont, 1976; Erickson and Shultz, 1978; McDermott, 1976; Mehan, 1979). Such studies employ vastly different theoretical orientations and data collection strategies, yet they share a common concern for capturing the natural internal operation of classrooms while eschewing the quantitative methodologist's concern for treatment controls (Tunnell, 1977). Reviews of ethnographic studies and methodological treatises by ethnographic proponents emphasize concepts such as "depth description," "meaning-in-context," and

"phenomenological validity" as the rationale for naturalistic field studies (see Rist, 1975; Mehan, 1976; McDermott, 1976; Smith, 1979; Hurn, 1976; Bronfenbrenner, 1976; Doyle, 1976; Dasho, 1977; Tunnell, 1977; Wilson, 1977; Beckum & Dasho, 1979; Baker, 1979). This methodological commitment to prolonged observation of scenes and to understanding the participants' points of view reflects a substantive interest in examining the social organization of learning.

Because the purpose, scope, personnel, and settings of ethnographic research vary so widely, no single set of procedures is followed in all cases. It is generally acknowledged that the method must fit the specific study (Wilson, 1977) because the process of generating constructs is essentially a creative act and cannot be prescribed (Hymes, 1977). Nevertheless, all ethnographic studies share a method of investigation that Becker (1958) described as a four-stage process of:

(1) Selecting and defining problems, concepts, and indices;

(2) Checking the frequency and distribution of phenomena;

(3) Constructing a social systems model, identifying important elements of the organization or setting;

(4) Performing final analysis and presenting results.

This same process is described by Glaser and Strauss (1967) as the "constant comparative method." Data from multiple sources must be integrated, and there is an ongoing interplay between conceptualization and incoming data. Inferences are tested through a process of seeking corroboratory and disconfirming evidence. Direct and prolonged access to events and informants in the setting allows observers to identify sources of information unanticipated in the initial research design.

The use of ethnographic methods in education, as in sociological and anthropological inquiry, is predicated upon a thorough understanding of the dynamics of the interactions that constitute the social order of a given setting. Wilson (1977) succinctly summarizes these important assumptions ethnographers make about

the way these dynamics are to be grasped:

> The two sets of hypotheses underlying the rationale for participant observation research are: (a) Human behavior is completely influenced by the context in which it occurs. Any research plan which takes the actors out of the naturalistic setting may negate those forces and hence obscure its own understanding. (b) Human behavior often has more meaning than its observable "facts." A researcher seeking to understand behavior must find ways to learn the manifest and latent meanings for the participants, and must also understand behavior from the objective outside perspective. (p. 253)

The many facets of teacher behavior are reflections of the multiple purposes or agendas of public schools. First, schools are places where learners learn and teachers teach; second, they are agencies that socialize students for their future roles in society (Dreeben, 1968; Inkeles, 1968); third, they are institutions with an organizational structure and accountability both to a variety of governmental agencies and to the community. The increased difficulties participants in desegregating schools experience in adjusting to change affect pedagogy, socialization, and institutional functioning. Thus the comprehensive ethnographic study must document administrative practices, instructional practices, student-teacher interactions, student-student interactions, and community-school partnership.

b. <u>The scope of inquiry in desegregated schools</u>

This phase of the study was concerned with the strategies employed by teachers as they organized their classrooms for learning and social integration. Of particular concern to the study was a comparison between teachers' planned activities and approaches and those that were actually implemented, given that the schools were undergoing the initial stage of desegregation. The primary data needs were descriptive chronicles of classroom events, and evidence documenting teachers' plans and the contingencies in the classroom and school settings that affected their plans and classroom events. These contingencies included

the actions of other teachers or the principal, occurrences on the playground, the district's policies, and the home situations of the students. Based on these data, it is possible to account for the intentions of the interactants, the explicit and implicit negotiations of normative compliance between teachers and students, the patterns of social relations in the classroom, and the influences of conditions outside of the classroom.

Figure B1 is a simplified illustration of the complex components of the social order of the classroom. The figure summarizes the schema used to orient observers during their training to the issues of interest in the study. In order to provide data bases that could yield indepth information on these various aspects of the desegregated classroom, the teachers involved participated in the research as informants on their own behaviors, and the ethnographers assigned to each room documented events occurring throughout the school day. The rationale for this approach (adapted from that used in studies of classroom socialization by Tikunoff, Ward, and Dasho, 1978) is described briefly below. The data collection methodology and data analysis strategy are discussed fully in sections C and D of this volume.

FIGURE B1

SUMMARY OF SCOPE OF MESE STUDY

ASPECTS OF DESEGREGATED EDUCATION	DATA COLLECTION ISSUES	TOPICS TO BE EXAMINED	ANALYSIS ISSUES
Teaching philosophy Attitudes and beliefs	Teacher characteristics (training, influences, "personality," tolerances, style), beliefs, values, etc.	Effects of teaching philosophies on the kind and amount of social integration and equalization of academic opportunities. Discrepancy between stated goals and behavior.	How do teachers' strategies translate into classroom practice?
Characteristics of students	Achievement Group dynamics Previous socialization	Special academic needs of students Social distance between students Home environments of students	What is the impact of the characteristics of the students (as a group) on the efficacy of teachers' strategies?
Instructional practice Curriculum and structural arrangements	Format of instruction: grouping, pacing, scheduling, and curriculum	Teachers' efforts to increase student participation and improve learning environment	Evaluation of effective teaching methods appropriate for use in newly desegregated classrooms.
Classroom management	System of rewards and punishments Socialization in cultural values Normative structure	Egalitarian/differential treatment Social organization of classroom Norms for appropriate academic and social performance	Description of the effectiveness of classroom management for facilitating learning environment; types of problems teachers face and success of control strategies.
Interpersonal communication	Teachers' and students' understanding of differences in interactional styles, cultural values, and group affect	Teachers' efforts to increase understanding Conflict resolution Student adaptation	Patterns of social relations that tend to foster social integration of students under specified conditions.
Relationship of district efforts to school policy	What are the programs undertaken? How do they work? Do they advance goals of integra- or not?	Structural arrangements Quality of multicultural programs Quality of in-service and support systems Community relations	How the district's desegregation plan can facilitate social integration, and staff and community support.

2. Design Considerations in Naturalistic Exploratory Research

a. Multiple perspectives on the classroom

The use of more than one source of information about events is a proven technique for eliciting a deeper understanding of the events and for overcoming the inherent bias in a given researcher's perceptions (Denzin, 1971). Though not as open to the exchange of insights as the insider-outsider observations of Smith and Geoffreys (1968), the MESE study utilized teacher participation in the research process to cue the observer to relevant features of the classroom system. After the observation period, ethnographers and teachers discussed the salient characteristics of classroom life identified by the ethnographers.

Prior to the beginning of the classroom observations, the teachers were interviewed about how they were conducting their classes. These interviews provided each ethnographer with the "native" account of the teacher's educational philosophy, attitudes about the students, views on desegregation, style of classroom management, and efforts to adjust to a new student population.

During the data collection period, teachers generated data by comparing their daily practices to the goals described in the initial interview, and by furnishing reflections on the progress of students in adapting to the classroom system. This was accomplished during the 25 days of observation by having teachers audiotape reports each day about these concerns. In weekly retrospectives the teachers reflected on the progress made during the previous five days. The review of research on the reliability of teacher self-reports by Hook and Rosenshine (1979) concludes that teachers' accounts of their actions do not accurately reflect actual practice. By comparing ethnographers' and teachers' accounts of daily activities, an analyst can examine the ways a teacher tends to skew or filter classroom events. On the other hand, a teacher's account of his or her motives for action is useful in understanding and ascribing meaning to an ethnographer's description of behavior. The ethnographers and

teachers did not read one another's daily reports so that observations would remain unaffected by interpersonal negotiations.

Other personnel in each school served the ethnographers as informants by providing additional perspectives on the school. The teacher's lounge, the school office, and the playground provided other contexts where casual talk gave the ethnographers insights into students' backgrounds, school dynamics, and play interactions.

After completion of the field observation period, each pair--teacher and ethnographer(s)--was given a set of topics to discuss. These discussions were taped, and included: characterizations of students, problems that arose in the classroom, the teachers' insights about positive and negative aspects of their situation, and teachers' suggestions on ways to improve teaching methods in a desegregated setting. Finally, the ethnographers solicited teacher feedback on specific observations of classroom or school dynamics--e.g., a teacher's work in managing a child with emotional problems, or the way a teacher resolved problems with his/her principal. The data bases generated by the efforts of the ethnographers and teachers were subjected to the multidisciplinary analysis that is described below.

b. Multiple perspectives for data analysis

The complexity of the school desegregation process--as part of an institutional environment and as a human drama--renders simple outcome measures of student achievement gains or attitude change inadequate for evaluating teacher effectiveness. The effects of district policy on the classroom, the relationship between teacher and parents, and the kinds of values that are generated in school also bear on equal educational opportunity.

Since the data collected in the study dealt with a broad range of pedagogical, social, and administrative issues, a novel multidisciplinary approach was used.

In order to go beyond the perceptions of the researchers and to provide a more holistic picture of the total process of desegregation, analysts were selected from four disciplines to examine the data. The areas represented were educational psychology, sociology, social psychology and administration/desegregation. These perspectives were chosen to provide overlapping analyses of one or more of the sets of issues suggested in Figure B1 (see page 19).

While taking into account the available data bases, each data analyst was required to develop an approach reflecting his or her particular discipline's perspective on the data. Each analyst created thematic evaluations of the four classrooms using a process described later in this volume (see DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES).

Having provided a sketch of methods employed in the study, we can now discuss the design considerations necessary for the scientific integrity of this inquiry.

c. Problems of authenticity

The adequacy of research in the social sciences is typically evaluated in terms of methodological considerations that allow statistical examination of reliability and validity. As Richer (1975) points out:

> Evidence is mounting, however, that this is precisely the kind of design we wish to avoid. Rather than equating the groups on all dimensions save the treatment, we need more complex designs which look at differential effects of educational techniques for different kinds of students. For example, random assignment of students to lecture and discussion groups only serves to obscure any differences between the two techniques. This will come about because each group theoretically contains two sub-groups of students--those who work best in discussion settings and those who feel more comfortable under a lecture-type format. Maximal effects will only show up if students with particular work styles are matched with appropriate pedagogical structures. There are data to show in fact that students at different ability levels are affected differently by certain methods (Chronbach and Snow, 1969), as are students from different social classes (Breton et al. 1972; Richer, 1974). In statistical parlance, interaction effects, not main effects, are the appropriate foci. (p. 395)

Richer's comments reflect a growing concern that simple input-output models of the schooling process may not be the most fruitful way to examine these "interaction effects." (Brophy & Good, 1970; Doyle, 1977; Mehan, 1976; Berliner, 1976; Borich, 1976; Shavelson & Dempsey, 1975; Chronbach, 1975.)

In order to explain how the issues of reliability and validity are addressed in this study, it is preferable to adopt a terminology that can avoid confusion with inapplicable statistical formulations of these issues. A schema developed by Baker (1978) will be used here to provide an exposition of the criteria of scientific adequacy in naturalistic studies. This schema uses the following terms: "intrinsic adequacy" in lieu of "internal validity"; "extrinsic adequacy" in lieu of "external validity" or "generalizability"; "replicability" in lieu of "reliability"; and "impartiality" in lieu of "objectivity."

Intrinsic adequacy. This term is defined as "the degree of isomorphism that exists between the study data and the phenomena to which they relate." Among the useful techniques Baker reviews that can assure internal adequacy are *triangulation*, *cross-examination* and *persistent observation*. These three techniques were employed in the MESE study.

Triangulation (Denzin, 1971) consists of cross-validation of reports through the corroboration of one data source with another. The discussion of multiple perspectives in the classroom (p.21) suggests the ways in which this technique was used in the MESE study.

Cross-Examination (Tymitz & Wolf, 1977) refers to a legal evaluation model for testing the plausibility of alternative explanations. In the MESE study, the ethnographers sought clarification from the students, the teachers and other school personnel. The final interviews with the teachers were designed to create a dialogue between the ethnographer and the teacher,

centering on classroom occurrences and attributes of the students.

Finally, the investigators and the data analysts, in their separate analysis efforts, tested alternatives to the ethnographers' assessments of classroom dynamics by re-examining the raw data.

Persistent observation simply refers to the value of the ethnographer's continued presence in the classroom. Prolonged involvement in the scene insures that the patterns of identified behavior reflect typical rather than atypical occurrences. In the MESE study, the presence of ethnographers all day, everyday, for twenty-five days, allowed the examination of both the stability of routines and the ways changes evolve. Conversations with teachers and teachers' reports provided clues to what was usual or unusual in student behavior, teaching practice, school problems, etc.

Extrinsic adequacy. To be useful, findings from specific settings must be generalized to other settings. The strength of naturalistic research is that detailed context information can provide the community of scientists with criteria for determining the isomorphism of the settings studied--by comparing the settings with other situations. The limit of naturalistic research, including the MESE study, is the small sample size, which may not afford the opportunity to assess the representatives of the sample. However, there is growing recognition of the inherent limitations of traditionally "valid" claims to generalizability. Brophy and Evertson (1975) conclude that most data on instruction are presented as generalizable but are actually context-specific. They cite as examples some of the most typically used quantitative classroom observation instruments:

> ...analyses of the stability of process behaviors measured by versions of the Brophy-Good Dyadic observation system (Brophy & Good, 1970) reveal that most of them, including many variables often treated as generic teaching variables, show little or no stability across context (Brophy, Evertson, et al., 1975) or time (Crawford, Brophy, Evertson, 1975).

Baker (citing Chronbach, 1975) poignantly offers that

> ...in a short while after they are made, generalizations are more likely to be history than science, and that instead of making generalizations the ruling consideration in inquiry, emphasis should be placed on careful description, with efforts to "describe and interpret the effect anew in each locale, perhaps taking into account factors unique to that locale or series of events." (Chronbach, p. 123) Generalizations in this context have the form of working hypotheses, not of conclusions. (pp. 69-70)

The design of the MESE study had such a hypothesis-generative orientation. Findings will serve as working hypotheses for the examination of desegregating classrooms in other settings during the coming year. Through this process, the limits of the applicability of constructs will be clarified.

Replicability. It is, to some extent, problematic to suggest that other observers could recreate the data generated by ethnographers, since investigative portions of the data collection strategy are emergent and serendipitous. In the MESE study, the replicability of narrative scripting, at least, could be assessed through data quality control. At the onset of data collection, the project manager joined each ethnographer in the task of taking and comparing field notes. Additionally, interobserver reliability criteria were satisfied in training. Descriptions of these procedures are found in the section of this report entitled DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES.

Originally, the study design called for two ethnographers to be assigned to each classroom. As explained in the data collection section, however, the attrition of trained ethnographers brought about by the relocation of the study eliminated this safeguard. It was possible to place two ethnographers in only one classroom. One ethnographer was placed in each of the others. In the classroom shared by two ethnographers, perceptions were mutually corroborative. The closeness of their judgments regarding classroom dynamics suggests

that their assessments of this classroom's action might be replicated by other observers.

Neutrality. As Baker contends, the reliance upon a single investigator's observations in naturalistic research does not indicate a lack of "objectivity" (Scrivin, 1972). The real problem is in the control of bias. In the case of the MESE study, three levels of bias had to be considered: (1) the ethnographers may have been biased in their reporting of classroom events; (2) the ethnographers may have had distorted conceptions of classroom interaction patterns in their data summarizations; and (3) the data analysts may have formed distorted constructs about the classroom based on their reading of the data.

In the first case, bias control is achieved by observer training, by the behavioral characterization of the descriptions themselves,and by previously mentioned design features (i.e., triangulation, cross-examination and persistent observation).

The focus of the study must be made clear to the observers when they are trained so that their field notes will contain relevant data. But at the same time, observers' personal biases must be controlled in order to avoid prefiguring the interpretation of events. As Malinowski (1922) first pointed out, preconceived notions can help the ethnographer foresee the potential richness of possibilities in certain events, but these constructs must not blind the observer to discovery. The tack taken in the MESE study was to train observers to appreciate the nuances in the structure of interpersonal communication that might bear on such issues as equal treatment of students and cross-cultural differences in verbal, nonverbal and proxemic behavior. Thus, the observers were trained to provide unambiguous and detailed narratives which avoided judgmental descriptions of instructional activities, positive and negative sanctions, facial expressions and tone of voice. The

interaction sequences could later be reconstructed by a reader.

Another way descriptive bias was neutralized was by training the ethnographers to follow the flow of events in a play-by-play fashion. This minimized conscious choice of possible alternative report topics. Smith's (1978) term "immersion in concrete perceptual images" characterized the ethnographer's reporting of "behavioralized" descriptions. This type of data collection is similar to that used by ethologists in the description of overt animal behavior (e.g., Lorenz, 1965; Charlesworth & Bart, 1976; Dasho, 1978).

Informal reports taped by the observer captured the insights, hunches, clues and emerging patterns of behavior that only the ethnographer-as-witness can generate. This reporting captures both what Smith calls "interpretative asides" and the information garnered from investigative work (such as interviews with students or school personnel, meetings attended, or conversations with the teacher). Though not as immune to bias as the narrative scripts of classroom events, these asides provide clues that can be treated as insider opinions. The analysts are nonetheless free to draw their own conclusions from the raw data.

The second source of possible bias is distorted conceptualization by ethnographers. As suggested earlier, the data analysts were free to return to raw data in order to audit the enthnographers' constructs and generate their own. Ethnographic and teacher self-report data could be compared in many instances as well. These features of the study provided checks and balances on ethnographers' data summarization.

The third source of bias is the distortion of the phenomena by the data analysts in forming their own constructs. The main safeguard here is the existence of multiple data analyses that can complement or contradict each other in interpreting the same data. Also, the alternative depictions of

the classrooms can be compared to the case studies generated by the investigators. It is highly unlikely that these diverse perspectives could produce a systematically distorted interpretation of classroom life. Finally, hypotheses generated by the analysts as implications for teacher training needs could be tested against the teachers' expressed perceptions of needs as well as the evidence from other studies.

It should be noted that the arguments for establishing the authenticity of ethnographic, or naturalistic, inquiry were established many years ago and have changed little in substance. Malinowski (1922), Becker (1958), and Glaser & Strauss (1967), in their respective disciplines, grappled with the fundamental issues of developing trust in one's own inferences and offering proof to a scientific community that one's research is trustworthy; their conclusions have withstood the scrutiny of later writers.

Having briefly described the naturalistic methodology employed and the safeguards utilized for insuring the scientific integrity of the study, we can now turn to an examination of data collection procedures.

C. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

1. The Problem of Establishing a Site for the Research

Naturalistic research in schools never occurs in a political vacuum. Unexpected events can alter the most carefully thought-out designs and logistical considerations. The MESE Project encountered such unforeseen difficulties.

Originally, the Los Angeles Unified School District was to be the site of the study. Negotiations with the school district had proceeded smoothly. Ethnographers in the area were recruited and trained, and a field office was set up for the transcription of field notes and supervision of the ethnographers. Meanwhile, maneuvers by Bus Stop, an antibussing group in Los Angeles, delayed the opening of schools. During this time, the district became reluctant to allow outsiders to scrutinize its operations. The decision was eventually made to disallow all research in the schools during the first year of implementation of the desegregation plan. The MESE project was only one casualty of this interdiction. The atmosphere of public relations paranoia surrounding the desegregation issue was manifested by the district's refusal to release attendance figures during the first several weeks of the school year.

At that point (one week into the public school year), rapid revisions of the design were imperative. Arrangements had to be made with a school district in the greater Los Angeles metropolitan area to conduct the research. Ethnographers had to be recruited and trained to replace those originally employed who had found other work or could not commute to the new site. In addition, a new set of classrooms had to be identified, and teachers had to be recruited. The design of the study had to be altered because one of the important aspects of the

observations--namely, the initial socialization processes occurring in the first few days of the school year--had been lost.

The resulting data collection strategy described below represents the compromise necessary to implement the study by the end of the third week of school. However unfortunate, the turmoil accompanying the events in the Los Angeles area reflects the kinds of trade-offs between the ideal and the feasible that occur when research and institutional needs clash.

2. Selection of the Target Classrooms

The optimal situation would have been to examine classrooms that represent paired schools at the same grade level. In this way it would have been possible to compare the similarities and differences in the educational life of the formerly minority and formerly majority schools. Since the district's desegregation plan is voluntary, pupil transfers were based on self-selection. Because of this self-selection, we could not assume comparability between the student populations at the paired schools. For example, most whites bussed to one predominantly minority school were "disciplinary problems" at their former school, and their parents were looking for a fresh start. This was not the motivation of blacks who chose to integrate the white school, which represented (for them) higher socioeconomic status. Faced with essentially unique conditions in each school and an extremely small sample size, the decision was to try to view as much diversity as possible in this stage of the research.

Teachers for the study were volunteers responding to an announcement circulated by the district. The district wished to have final say on the teachers selected. Research staff provided the following selection criteria: the group of teachers should have ethnic and gender diversity, experience with teaching minorities, and willingness to participate in the research.

The sample of teachers (as shown below) represents a good cross section of both the ethnic diversity in this city and the types of programs offered in the desegregation plan at the elementary level.

	sex	race/ ethnicity	majority of the students	minority of the students
Mr. Williams	M	black	black	none
Ms. Baker	F	white	black	white
Mr. Lewis	M	white	white	black
Ms. Garcia	F	Mexican American	Mexican American	white, black

Mr. Williams, however, had a 100 percent black class in a school whose student population was 94 percent black. While this teacher's classroom did not afford the opportunity to examine a multi-ethnic setting, it did provide a case study of the educational experience of a classroom that had not been impacted by desegregation of the school. Mr. Williams' school was paired with Mr. Lewis' school. While black fifth and sixth graders were bussed to the white school, only first to third grade white students were transferred to Mr. Williams' school. Future district plans were to have the school serve only primary grades, with the upper grades destined to move to Mr. Lewis' school. (These plans were subsequently changed.)

A second decision was to use volunteer teachers without concern for their teaching "effectiveness." Since the purpose of the study was to determine what effectiveness consists of in multicultural classrooms, generating ad hoc criteria would have foreclosed the purpose of doing the research at all. To generate a

model of the features of classrooms that facilitate smooth transitions from segregated to integrated classrooms without looking in classrooms would be speculative social science of the most irresponsible kind.

3. Recruitment of Ethnographic Observers

Finding nine suitable ethnographers (two for each classroom plus one substitute) is more complex than selecting other types of classroom observers. The skilled ethnographer has to have clear and precise descriptive abilities, sensitivity to styles of communication, knowledge of classroom practices, public relations skills, and interviewing and investigative skills. In other words, the ethnographer is a special individual who combines the virtues of a court stenographer, a detective, a workhorse, a public relations person, and a fly on the wall.

Further complicating the search was the need for ethnic diversity. In the academic areas in which field training is provided (sociology and anthropology), minority persons are notoriously underrepresented in graduate programs. Finding minority persons entailed extensive recruitment efforts. Inquiries for job applicants were made at the relevant departments of the University of California (Los Angeles and Riverside); California State University at Los Angeles, Domingo Hills, Northridge, and Fullerton; as well as at Occidental College. Personal contacts with the student placement offices of these campuses were made and job announcements posted. Interviewees were asked to provide a resumé and were given an assignment to conduct an "open-ended," ten-minute observation describing interpersonal interactions in a public place.

A third factor that filtered out applicants was uncertainty about whether the project would indeed be implemented. Employment could not be assured at

the time that the Los Angeles site was ruled out. When the study was revived two weeks later, driving distances to the target schools in excess of 100 miles (each way) were prohibitive for three of the trainees, while three others had accepted other employment.

Ten ethnographers (eight regulars and two alternates) were selected and trained, but the relocation of the study resulted in the loss of seven of them. Recruitment proceeded to find replacements for the departed trainees, but the effort was hampered both by the need to enter the classroom as soon as possible, and by the fact that most graduate students by that time had arranged their class schedules and were not available. A corps of five ethnographers was located in time for adequate training before entering the field. This necessitated redesigning the data collection strategy--reducing the number of observers from two to one in each classroom; having each observer work all day; and operating on a ten-minutes-on, five-minutes-off method so that observers would not become fatigued and could maintain field note quality over the entire day (see discussion of data collection methods).

4. Training of Ethnographic Observers

The training the observers received was designed to orient them to the purposes of the study, provide a conceptual orientation to classroom instruction, impart skills in generating detailed and accurate field notes, and assess the reliability of the observation skills.

a. Orientation

Prior to the beginning of the training week, the ethnographers received and read a 40-page overview of the study that explained the purpose of the research, and the data collection and analysis design. On the first day of training, questions about the study and the ethnographers' role were discussed.

Following this discussion, Mr. Dasho, the trainer, presented three lecture sessions that reviewed (1) typical patterns of classroom organization, (2) significant research findings regarding classroom instruction, and (3) cross-cultural differences in communication. Drawing upon the cultural and ethnic differences in the group, an inductive session generated additional examples of interactional and educational expectations that might differ among population groups.

b. Instruction

Beginning on the second day of the training week, the topics of conduct in the field, note-taking strategy and technique, and conventions of reporting became the major focusses of training. A detailed training manual written by the trainer provided a reference for these aspects of the training.

Discussion and demonstration activities focussed on special topics. These included a detailed discussion of the description and interpretation of body language (kinesics and proxemics), with particular attention to the cultural differences--i.e., rituals, manners of walking, interaction styles, and nonverbal behavioral conventions. Lists of descriptors and categories of concerns were provided to amplify and expand the treatment of issues presented in the training manual.

- *Film Clips* - Two- to five-minute segments of film of actual and staged classroom interactions were used. Ethnographic observers took notes as instructed. Accounts of the filmed behavior were then shared and critiqued, and the film segments repeated using stop-action to highlight important facets that the ethnographers were to capture. Observers developed their skills in identifying and describing nonverbal behavior by viewing some segments

with the sound off. The ethnographers took part in approximately 12 such sessions.

- *Observations of public behavior* - Once observers appeared competent and comfortable with the training described above, training moved to the campus of a junior college in order to hone note-taking ability in real life situations. The ethnographers observed five-, ten-, and fifteen-minute episodes in a class taught by one of the observers. Notes were reviewed and critiqued in a group setting between observations.
- *Observations of simulated classroom interactions* - Not all of the kinds of situations ethnographers would encounter in elementary classrooms had been examined in the earlier practice observations. Roleplaying vignettes, using staff and some of the observers, afforded the observers the opportunity to grapple with describing several of the important facets of teacher-student interactions. Ethnographers took turns acting and observing. Following each vignette, the "observers" read their notes to the "actors," who then critiqued the depictions of the events. The following were among the situations portrayed:

    1. The teacher frequently interrupts a math lecture at the chalkboard to direct control moves toward students who are off-task.
    2. The teacher moves from desk to desk, monitoring the students' work.
    3. The teacher gets the class settled down when they come in from recess.

4. The teacher is talking with one student while two others begin to tease, then fight. Teacher intervenes.

While actual elementary school classroom observations would have been optimal, they were not possible because the original training sessions occurred between the close of summer programs and the beginning of the school year.

5. Assessing Observer Trustworthiness

In order to determine if the training provided the participants with enough observational skills to faithfully record significant events, a reliability test was devised. In narrative reporting, interobserver agreement is a less suitable criterion of reliability than agreement between each observer's report and a predetermined set of events or behaviors that are to be recorded. To establish criteria, the staff repeatedly viewed a five-minute film clip in order to determine a list of 22 important occurrences representing what the ideal observer should be able to identify.

Observers viewed the film, then independently audio-taped and transcribed their notes. The observers were allowed one viewing of the film. Each observer's notes were rated, using the following point system:

Misses Action.....0 Points

Reports Action.....1 Point

Reports Action in a Detailed Manner.....2 Points

The number of points earned was multiplied by the number of possible occurrences (22). Of a possible 44 points, a score of 33 (75%) was necessary to attain the required level of accuracy. Thus, the above criteria for note-taking thoroughness constituted a rigorous test of observer reliability. All but one observer exceeded this score. The individual who earned the low score was eliminated from the observer group.

Because of the severe time constraints introduced by the relocation of the study, an accelerated training program was instituted for the two new observers. The original observers also participated in order to renew their skills.

The first day of training was devoted to a detailed review of the manual. The second day was divided between observation and critiquing the film clips. Individual observations occurred in the evenings. The third day consisted of on-site training in the classrooms to which observers were assigned.

The reliability check was administered to the newly recruited observers on the first day of the film observations. The results indicated this check was clearly premature. In order to begin the implementation of the study as scheduled, the decision was made to conduct reliability checks in the field. Thus, by taking the first day in the classroom as a practice day, all observers' skills could be refined and meaningfully assessed. The trainer joined each observer in his or her assigned classroom for ten-minute observations. Upon leaving the classroom after each observation, they compared notes, and the trainer critiqued the observer's performance. This process was repeated until the trainer felt the observer succeeded in capturing the flow of events. Observers continued to observe for the remainder of the school day. In doing so, they were able to practice their skills and familiarize themselves with the students. The first day's observations, although tape-recorded, were not included in the data base.

6. Classroom Assignment of Observers

In order to utilize their ethnic/linguistic backgrounds, we assigned observers in the following manner:

Observer	Predominant Ethnicity of Students	Teacher
1 black, 1 white*	black	black
white**(Spanish speaking)	Mexican American	Mexican American
black	black	white
white	white	white

* *A white observer conducted 30 percent of the observations of the regular observer's time obligations.*

** *This observer, in addition to speaking Spanish, was a doctoral student in anthropology who specialized in Mexican culture.*

During the 25 days of observation, each class was observed all day (9:00 a.m. to school's end), Mondays through Fridays. The one exception was in Mr. Williams' classroom, where the observations were shared by two observers. One ethnographer observed on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday mornings, while the other ethnographer was responsible for the rest of the observations.

The 25 consecutive school days of observation began on October 18th and ended on November 22nd. Of the possible 600 plus hours of observation, illness, car trouble, and a lost notebook resulted in the loss of approximately 30 hours of ethnographic reporting. No more than two days were missed in any one classroom. Because data bases did not rely upon time-related concerns, it was not necessary to reschedule additional observations to make up for lost time.

7. Ethnographic Data Collection Procedures

The ethnographer was responsible for gathering all information about the classroom, as well as background information that might provide insight into the larger context in which classroom events occurred. Several types of data were generated, each of which is discussed separately below. Unless otherwise indicated,

information was dictated by observers onto audio-cassettes, which subsequently were transcribed by typists and assembled into data sets for each classroom.

a. Background information

On the first day in the field, ethnographers familiarized themselves with the classrooms, and reliability checks on their note-taking skills were completed. Each ethnographer collected information about the classroom and the school setting: these included a Classroom Environment Profile, School Map, Neighborhood Description, and interview with the principal.

The Classroom Environment Profile (CEP) consisted of a detailed map of the classroom accompanied by a taped narrative describing the atmosphere and the physical features of the room, including furniture and props. The ethnographers also drew maps of the school physical plan, again accompanied by taped description of facilities as well as the surrounding neighborhood.

Ethnographers arranged for interviews with the principals. These meetings served to introduce the ethnographers to the site administrators, as well as to provide them with insight into changes brought about at the school by the new desegregation plan. The ethnographers solicited the principal's opinions about desegregation in general, its chance for success in the district, and the efforts made within the school to encourage integration. The results of these interviews were later summarized in a taped report.

b. Daily classroom events

Each day the ethnographer arrived at school for the beginning of the school day and was present in the classroom during all learning activities. The routine for taking field notes was a "ten-on, five-off" procedure. Detailed notes about the flow of classroom events were recorded for ten minutes, followed by a five-minute interval during which the observer filled in gaps in the notes.

By "filling in" notes during the five-minute breaks, ethnographers were able to enhance recall for dictation at the end of the day. Ethnographers also summarized important events that occurred during their "off" periods. This method allowed the observer to cover the complete school day without becoming exhausted or compromising the quality of the data.

The basic ingredients of the narrative reporting of events are the answers to the old journalistic shibboleth "Who did What to Whom? Where? How? (With what intent?) And with what result?" Observers thus became practiced at reporting verbatim speech and indicating tone of voice and nonverbal behavior (such as gestures, posture, proxemics, and facial expression). In addition, an emphasis was placed on reporting complete "exchanges," rather than individual utterances or other communicative signals. It would, for example, be insufficient to report:

> The teacher looks at Tom, and with a severe expression says quietly, "Will you please stop tapping your pencil?"

The missing part of the exchange--namely, Tom's response--is essential for understanding the outcome of the interaction. (In this case, does he stop? How does he react?)

An ethnographer's narrative may be compared to a playwright's script. Our ethnographers were asked to capture dialogue, movement, and expression in sufficient detail to allow dramatic reenactment of scenes. The maps ethnographers developed in classrooms they observed--noting tables, chair placement, and objects in the room--enabled them to chart movement or location of activity with greater precision. This "shorthand" significantly simplified note taking.

As was discussed in the methodology section, the observers were trained to create a "play-by-play" acount of the teacher's behavior in conducting instruction, dealing with discipline, carrying out classroom routines, and informally interacting with the students. Interactions among students were recorded as well. Ethnographers were particularly interested in capturing events that revealed social adjustment or maladjustment, and violations of classroom rules. The guiding concern of the observation was to capture the sequence, form, and

context of planned events, as well as the interruptions to the flow of events. Of particular interest were instances of teacher efforts to socialize students into their expected roles, expressions of social values, communication between teacher and student (or among students), and attributions made concerning race, ethnicity,gender, or social class. For example, in a recitation sequence, an observer would have been concerned with noting which students were called upon, whether or not they gave the correct answer, what the teacher's reaction was, and how students subsequently reacted. The content of the recitation was usually summarized rather than reproduced verbatim.

Notations of time were made at the beginning of each five-minute period and at the conclusion of each observation segment. In addition, time notations also marked special events. Classroom noise level was also indicated when time was noted. A normative noise scale was developed reflecting a teacher's tolerance for noise. This scale, which varied from classroom to classroom, consisted of three categories:

0 = silence, or just one person talking, others listening

1 = talking at a restrained level; students keep their voices down but multiple conversations are occurring

2 = noisy; louder than usual, at/or above the teacher's tolerance level

A normative scale for each classroom provided a better indication of the conditions in a given room than a literal measure of audible sound. Once the normal classroom noise levels have been established for a classroom, the noise level descriptors amply convey the classroom atmosphere and the teacher's tolerance for student talk. Observers recorded changes in noise level (and the time of the event) whenever such information appeared to have bearing on the later interpre-

tation of events and their consequences. If the teacher, for example, sanctioned the students for being too noisy, did the noise level drop? How quickly did it drop? If a student entered the classroom and went to his or her desk after a lesson was under way, how long was it before the teacher noticed that the student was not working on the assignment?

While it was impossible for the ethnographers to record all simultaneous occurrences, they did capture as much of the continuous flow of activities as possible. In addition, they cued on certain events in order to fulfill the study's objective. An excerpt from one of the ethnographer's daily reports appears as Appendix A.

Accompanying the daily tapes, a log of classroom activities and their durations was submitted each day to provide an overview of tape content. These logs also aided in tabulating instructional time in each subject area. See Appendix B for an example of the daily log.

c. Informal reports

The ethnographer was given the choice of following students onto the playground during recess and lunch, or staying with the teacher. Observations in either case differed from those in classroom observations. At these times, the ethnographer could observe, informally interview, or simply converse with students or teacher to build rapport. Notes were taken at the time or jotted down after such interactions, as appropriate.

Such informal interactions fostered acceptance of the ethnographers by the persons observed. An advantage of this rapport was that the participants developed trust in the observers and tried to provide candid information, without masking their normal behaviors. Observer involvement with the subjects can have a biasing effect on reporting of events. While all the ethnographers experienced some personal frustration in recognizing the problems the teachers faced each day, they were able to use the informal reports to vent their frustration.

Narrative chronicles could thus be kept free of judgmental opinions, which were included in the informal reports and interpretive asides.

The ethnographers probed students and/or school personnel and noted impressions, trends, and patterns of occurrences that were included in daily narrative description. These insights were taped in periodic informal reports. Each ethnographer pursued available strategies for gaining insights into the school scene. Thus, the kinds of information contained in the informal reports was unique to each classroom. For example, one ethnographer found the school janitor to be a valuable source of information about school dynamics. In another classroom, the teacher arranged for the ethnographer to be present at the parent-teacher conferences. These conferences provided insight into the home backgrounds of the children. In this way, the informal reports provided the project with insider perceptions and helped to preserve neutrality of the daily narratives.

d. Data summarization

In addition to collecting data, the ethnographers developed an understanding of the dynamics of their classrooms, as well as the kinds of skills the teachers demonstrated and the areas in which the teachers were having problems associated with new students. Their hunches, analyses of trends, and conceptualizations became part of the informal reports that were generated during the data collection period. Halfway through this period, the ethnographers were given questions to guide the summarizing (see Appendix C).

Following the conclusion of data collection and before the final interview with the teachers, the ethnographers met to generate a series of summary reports. These reports were designed to provide the data analysts with a synopsis of the teachers' instructional systems and management practices, descriptions of the students, patterns of social interaction, and unique problems faced by each teacher. The ethnographers also provided a list of teachers' skills as well as examples of needs for inservice teacher training. The outlines for data

summarization appear in Appendix D.

8. Preparation of Participating Teachers

It is interesting to note that the teachers volunteered for a variety of reasons. One was anxious to be observed so there would be outside evidence about the nature of his program, which had recently been censured by the school administration. Two were proud of their methods and experience and felt the involvement would be useful to both themselves and others. The fourth was "volunteered" by the principal and had to overcome a good deal of defensiveness and suspicion in order to accept the intrusion of being observed.

Initially, the teachers were visited in their classrooms by the research staff. At that time the teachers were provided with information orienting them to the purpose of the research and their responsibilities; they were asked to familiarize themselves with the information before the Saturday meeting with ethnographers and research staff. Teachers' questions and concerns about the nature of their involvement, as well as the role the ethnographer would play in the classroom, were addressed during this meeting.

Each ethnographer conducted an initial teacher interview with the teacher to whose class he or she was assigned. Research staff monitored each of the interviews and clarified questions about the information sought. The instrument used (see Appendix E) elicited information about the teachers' professional backgrounds, attitudes toward desegregation, impressions of their group of students, and working relationships with other school staff. The teachers were asked to describe their methods of instruction for each subject area, as well as their overall teaching philosophy, forms of classroom management and discipline, and efforts undertaken to foster social integration within their classrooms.

These interviews not only provided the project and the ethnographer with succinct expressions of teachers' self-perceptions and insights, but also helped to orient the teacher to the kinds of information sought from their daily reports. When the interviews were completed, a wrap-up session entertained additional teacher questions and final arrangements for data collection.

Once data collection began, a member of the research staff visited the classrooms at least once a week to provide feedback on teachers' taped reports and to answer questions. More than a formality, these field visits were essential for identifying and resolving difficulties teachers were having with their research involvement. One teacher, for example, needed continuous support and was very uncertain about the kind of information being provided. Another had thought it inappropriate to "be negative"; consequently, this teacher had not included in transcriptions the frustrations and difficulties experienced in working with the students. The importance of providing the teachers with a clear understanding of the purposes of the project and hearing out problems they were having in dealing with the parents, students, and administrators, strengthened teachers' commitment to the study. This practice increased the rapport between researchers and teachers.

9. Teachers' Data Reporting Procedures

a. Daily and weekly teacher-generated reports

As previously discussed, the teachers were oriented to the study prior to the initial interviews, when it was explained that the information requested in the teacher daily and weekly reports was to be based upon issues raised in the interview. These topics related to the teachers' expectations about students, their instructional planning, and the reasons behind their classroom management system, among other decisions.

Teachers were then given a list of questions (see Appendix F) that served to organize their reports. For the most part, the list sufficed as general instructions. During the research staff's weekly field visits, however, teachers sometimes expressed concern for whether or not their reports were providing the type of information requested, and additional elaboration of these topics was offered as needed. Appendix G gives a sample of a daily report.

The daily reports provided an opportunity to compare the teachers' and the ethnographers' perspectives on the same events. As it turned out, there was overlap in the description of some occurrences. Teachers tended to recall some daily events in great detail. In some cases they kept notes during the day of issues or events to include in the reports. Teachers reported, for example, the success of a lesson, or what they said to a student at some point in the day. But teachers, more often than not, used their reports to reflect general concerns rather than specific interactions. Teachers varied in the extent to which they focussed on their own problems, their motivation for actions, descriptions of events, or observations about students. These differences were interesting in themselves and as reflections of a teacher's priorities.

In addition to the daily taping of reports, the teachers usually dictated weekly reports on weekends. Tapes were turned in to the ethnographers, who dropped them off with their own tapes at the field office for transcription. Reports revealed a great deal about personal teaching style, and they varied in length and depth of insight from day to day. The researchers felt it important to preserve these differences. It was necessary to intervene with one teacher to increase the amount of information provided. Two of the four teachers remarked that the process of having to do the reports forced them to be more aware of what they were doing in their classrooms and improve their understanding of their "own moods" and the patterns of students' behavior.

b. Teachers' profiles of students

For their first daily tape, the teachers were asked to go through their class list, describing each student in the class in terms of his/her academic ability and social integration in the classroom. This description was later compared with a similar list generated by the ethnographers during the third week of the study, and with the discussions in the final interviews.

c. Final interviews

Following the end of the data collection period, the ethnographers taped interviews with the teachers. In these exit interviews, teachers responded to a structured instrument (see Appendix H). This was followed by an open-ended discussion, during which the ethnographer generated topics to probe the teacher's opinions of past events or trends.

The exit interview afforded the opportunity to involve teachers in the formulation of two main kinds of information. First, data was gleaned concerning teachers' perceptions of their students and the teachers' self-evaluations of their own success in achieving anticipated instructional goals. The ethnographers and teachers compared opinions about the students, and they discussed the kinds of classroom situations that held particular significance for the teacher.

Second, the instruments solicited teachers' opinions about the kinds of resources, training, and/or other technical assistance they felt would be of benefit to themselves and to other teachers in desegregating schools.

10. Field Monitoring

As was mentioned above in the section on the training of the ethnographic observers, the project manager spent the first two days of the data collection period in the field, taking notes in each of the classrooms to assist in standardizing field note taking. The ethnographer and manager compared notes for

comprehensiveness of information, a procedure that was continued until the quality of each observer's reporting was assured. During the remainder of the 25 days of observation, the manager read the narrative transcripts as they became available to catch any omissions that might affect the quality of the data. He was then able to provide feedback during the field visits to the ethnographers and the teachers. The field visits took place once or twice a week, as the situation warranted. These visits often provided opportunities for the ethnographers to discuss features of the setting or problems they felt were important. Decisions were made on the spot about the appropriateness of various strategies. On one occasion, an ethnographer had the time and opportunity to interact on a one-to-one basis with students. The ethnographer proposed to use this time to interview the children about their friendships in order to construct a sociogram. This task was encouraged as long as it did not take any time away from the classroom.

Meeting with teachers weekly during lunch or recess provided an occasion for the field manager to answer questions about the purpose of the teachers' daily reports, be supportive of their participation, and hear out the problems they felt they were facing and/or the progress they were making. These sessions were held with the ethnographers present so that they could mention any issues they felt were germane.

The organization of data analysis and the strategy utilized by each of the four analysts are described in Section D, which follows.

D. DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

1. Evolution of the Format for Data Analysis Reports

Following the collection of data, the advisory panelists and the data analysts met to begin the discussion of the data analysis needs of the project. The analysts were provided with sample data packages that included examples of all the data bases generated during the study. The panelists addressed the issue of what might constitute a productive multidisciplinary approach. The discussion below describes the sequence of meetings used to determine the strategies the analysts would take for examining the data and the reporting format agreed upon. Later in this section the strategies taken are described in detail.

The design process consisted of:

1. a December 1978 meeting to develop preliminary approaches
2. submission of analysis designs to the advisory panel
3. conference call to approve submitted designs
4. April 1979 meeting to determine reporting format
5. submission of abstract
6. submission of data analysis reports
7. review process and editing

This process is described in detail below.

a. Initial meeting

On December 13 and 14, 1978, an initial meeting was attended by both the data analysts and the advisory panel. The purpose of this meeting was twofold: first, to orient the participants to the goals of the study; and, second, to discuss the question of how to organize a multidisciplinary approach to data analysis, including the assignment of necessary tasks to analysts and panel

members. The agenda, which was mailed to all the participants before the meeting, is represented as Appendix I.

Analysts individually presented to the group their tentative plans for approaching their work. These plans were discussed by the group, and a date was set in mid-January for the submission of a brief analysis design for review by the research team and the panel. A timeline was set for the completion of a draft, as well as for a monitoring and review process.

b. Conference call

On January 19th, a conference call was made to all the analysts and advisory panel members. This was an occasion for the panel members to critique the data analysis strategies and for the analysts to discuss problems they anticipated in conducting their analyses.

c. April meetings

During the conference call, all parties agreed to meet in April (the 12th and 13th) in order to determine the form of the data analysts' reports. By the time of these April meetings, analysts had received the rest of the data collected from the classrooms. During the meetings, subsidiary questions were: 1) to identify among the large volume of data collected for study the most significant data for each analysis; 2) to determine a completion date for the reports; 3) to discuss what would be done with the reports; i.e., their place in the larger study.

Since each analyst was studying the data from a unique perspective, it was decided that each of them should establish his/her framework for discussion of problems common to all the classrooms studied (although the individual teachers' responses to those problems might differ). An initial description of the framework should explain the data analyst's principal areas of concern and define certain issues to be examined in each of the four classrooms. Then,

the data analysts should document their depictions of each classroom by presenting evidence from the data. Each classroom would be treated separately. The classroom-by-classroom analysis would allow comparative conclusions about the effects of various teachers'strategies and various school situations. The data analyst's framework would structure concluding recommendations about how the classroom environment might be improved. Such recommendations might span a range of issues; e.g., changing curriculum, classroom organization, disciplinary practices, and/or extracurricular activities. The data analysts were encouraged to speculate about and take into consideration students' home environments and community influence and resources in making their recommendations. Each data analyst was expected to create a piece which could stand on its own as a report. It was understood that each data analyst would concentrate on only those topics he/she considered most significant and which the analyst could address most knowledgeably. The comprehensive view of the classrooms would be assembled from the four reports by the research team.

d. Format

The advisory panel members and the data analysts agreed to the following format for presentation of the results of phase I of the study:

1. Project staff would prepare an overview of the study containing discussions of the purpose of the study, the research design, a literature review, and background information on the district, schools, and teachers. Appendices would include relevant data necessary to supplement the data analysts' reports. This overview would free the analysts from redundant introductory writing.
2. Each analyst would be responsible for producing a seven-part report consisting of the following:

Part I: an analysis design containing justification for the conceptual and/or methodological approach employed.

Parts II-V: four case studies of each of the classrooms observed in the study.

Part VI: comparative conclusions in which generalizations about the kinds of problems faced and solutions offered by the teachers are evaluated.

Part VII: teacher training recommendations which would provide conclusions and analysis of the areas in which teacher training might address the skills and/or difficulties observed.

e. Abstracts

Five-page abstracts (requested at the April meetings) were due on June 1st. The abstracts summarized the reports in the form of primary recommendations. These abstracts then provided direction for the project staff in making its proposed study design for phase II to the National Institute for Education.

f. Data Analysis reports

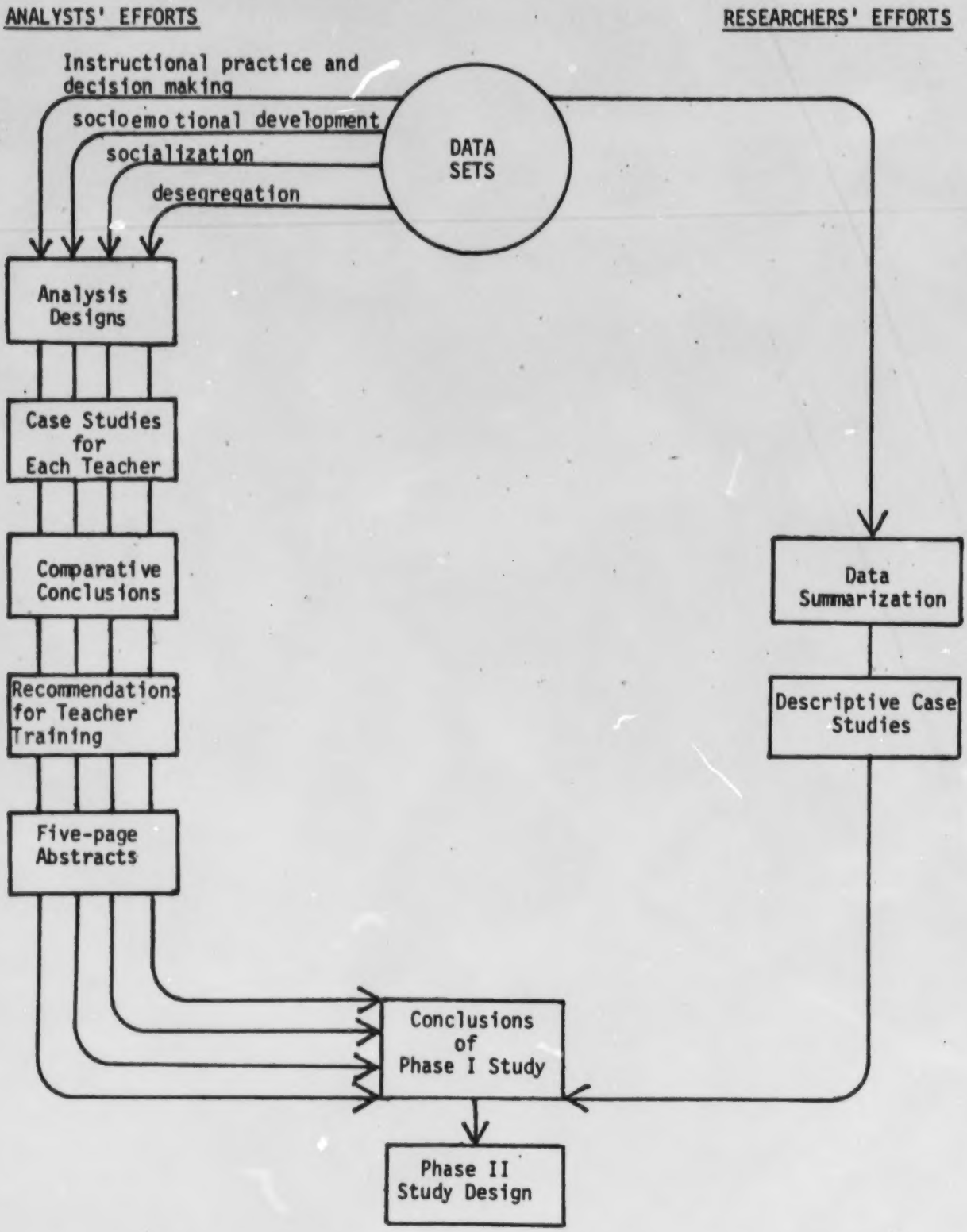
The completed reports were due July 1st. The analysts' completed reports vary in format because of the nature of the different perspectives presented (see Volume III: Findings and Implications). Project staff edited the final reports in order to make usage and references consistent. The reader is referred to Figure D1, which schematizes the reporting design.

g. Case studies

A decision was made to have the research team generate case studies of four classrooms, providing an overview of the dynamics operating in each one. The purpose of these case studies was to summarize information gleaned from

FIGURE D1

OVERVIEW OF MESE PROJECT REPORTING DESIGN



the interviews of teachers, teachers' daily reports, and ethnographers' data-summarizing activities and daily chronicles. A second purpose was to allow the consolidation of general information about the schools and classrooms in order to assure coverage of these concerns and avoid redundency in the analysts' reports. The case studies are not designed to be evaluative, but rather to provide descriptive information to introduce and augment the data analysts' reports. The case studies, which appear as Volume II, Classroom Case Studies, contain the following:

- setting information on the school, classroom, and personnel
- descriptions of the teachers' expectations about the teaching role, the students, and the desegregation effort
- description of the teachers' instructional practices
- description of the teachers' socialization efforts

The data analysts' case studies, conclusions, and training recommendations--as well as the overall conclusions of the phase I study--are contained in Volume III.

2. Description of Data Analysts and Advisory Panel Members

The rationale for choosing data analysts with diverse academic backgrounds was to broaden the scope of perspectives on the ethnographic data (see earlier discussion of multiple analysis perspectives). Consultants were selected on the basis of their previous work and were asked to comment upon the data from one of these four "points of view": educational psychology, social psychology, sociology, and administration/desegregation. Within each area, the analysts were allowed to propose a more specific point of view from which to carry out their work.

The "educational psychology perspective" was represented by Dr. Christopher M. Clark of the College of Education, Michigan State University, where he is Assistant Professor of Educational Psychology and Senior Researcher at the Institute for Research on Teaching. Dr. Clark's work has included the development of teacher training models, focussing particularly on teacher's instructional practices and decision-making processes.

The "social psychology perspective" was represented by Drs. Joanne R. Whitmore and Colet M. Hopkins. Dr. Whitmore serves as Director of Programs for Educators of Children and as Associate Professor of Psychology and Education at the George Peabody College for Teachers (Vanderbilt University). Dr. Hopkins, at the time of the study, was preparing her dissertation in educational psychology; she has additional background in anthropology. Dr. Whitmore's area of specialization is the application of social psychology to the analysis of the effects of classroom environment and teacher behavior upon pupils' attitudes and behavior.

The "administration/desegregation perspective" was represented by Dr. Charles D. Moody, Sr., who serves as the Director of the Program for Educational Opportunity at the University of Michigan. This is one of the regional Race Desegregation Assistance Centers funded by the Office of Education to provide technical assistance to

school districts during the desegregation/integration of their schools. In addition, Dr. Moody is an Associate Professor of Education at the University of Michigan. He has had previous educational experience as a school superintendent, assistant principal and classroom teacher.

The "sociological perspective" was represented by Dr. Gene N. Levine, who is Professor of Sociology, U.C.L.A. and Fellow, Institute for Jewish Life, University of Judaism. His research work has focussed on minority communities and interethnic relations.

Advisory panel members were chosen for their ability to contribute to the review and critique of proposed analysis designs, and for their familiarity with key issues related to teaching effectiveness or school desegregation. Two administrators represented the school district that was studied--one from the Office of Program Management and one from Educational Services. Representing the desegregation field was Dr. Ogle Duff, Director of the Race Desegregation Assistance Center at the University of Pittsburg and Assistant Professor of Education at the University of Pittsburg. Representing the field of educational research were Dr. Nathaniel Gage, Professor of Education and Professor of Psychology at Stanford University; and Dr. William Tikunoff, Director of the Effective Teacher Education Program at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development.

3. Data Analysis Strategies

By early January, after an orientation to the purpose of the study and time to review a sample data package, the data analysts developed tentative approaches (for a description of the evolution of the designs, see section 1, above). These designs were approved by the advisory panel, and each

analyst or team proceeded to examine the data. In this section, each of the four approaches is presented in the manner it was initially formulated by the analysts. Subsequent modification of design strategies occurred to some degree. The final procedures used are presented by each analyst in his or her report (Volume III).

a. Policy and administrative issues

Dr. Charles D. Moody, Sr., was to examine factors external to the actual classroom settings in order to discuss the larger context of desegregation efforts. He conceived of three ways to focus upon the issues to be examined. First, he wanted to identify areas in which multi-ethnic equity was at issue; he asked if there was equity in:

- Media coverage of the desegregation process
- Vacancies open to majority and minority students in the various programs
- Treatment of students
- Policies and procedures

Second, he wanted to submit his data to the following questions, which relate more directly to the classroom environment:

- What are teachers' personal views on desegregation?
- Is there a multicultural perspective to curriculum?
- Is there a procedure for evaluating textbooks and instructional material for bias?
- Is there a system-wide in-service program?
- Is ability grouping practiced?
- What emphasis is placed on student rights and responsibilities?
- What are the available options to students?
- What is the quality as well as the quantity of intercultural/interracial communications?

Third, he wanted to submit his data to different levels of analyses in order to discuss equity in terms of the classroom, school, and district, as well as the majority and minority communities.

In order to treat the effects of district efforts, Dr. Moody requested the following supplemental data: district policy manual, newspaper and media coverage, articles on the desegregation process, student code of conduct handbook, results of district evaluation of racial and sexual bias in curriculum materials, and documents on district and/or building inservice activities.

b. Teacher decision making and instructional practice

Dr. Christopher M. Clark, as an educational psychologist, focussed his analysis plan on the cognitive information-processing in teaching. This perspective is concerned with how teachers' beliefs and perceptions affect their practice. Dr. Clark was particularly interested in examining the topics of teacher planning, judgment, decision making, and implicit theories. The proposed analysis would involve a search of the data for evidence of these processes and their operation in multi-ethnic classrooms.

Dr. Clark's plan did not entail a complete analysis of all of the data collected in this study. One of the first tasks in his analysis plan was to reduce the complete data set to a working data set of a manageable size. Examination of a small sample of data during the December 13-14, 1978 meetings suggested that the working data set for this analysis might look like the following:

- Primary data--initial interview, exit interview, 3-week summary, task 1-6 summaries, teacher summaries, parts of field notes
- Secondary data--remainder of field notes
- Tertiary data--background and demographic information

It was assumed that the working data set might change after examination of the full data package.

The sequence of events for this analysis was described as follows:

1) Study the raw data:
   a) Search the data for phenomena of interest
   b) Index the data
   c) Establish working data set
   d) Construct a working hypothesis or model for description of the classrooms
2) Describe the classrooms:
   a) Describe events during the five weeks of the study that bear on the working hypothesis
3) Search the data for disconfirming evidence:
   a) Re-examine the data set for events that are inconsistent with the working hypothesis; revise the descriptions accordingly
4) Think from the data:
   a) Answer the following question: "Given the above description of multi-ethnic classrooms, what concepts ought to be taken into account in teacher education for multi-ethnic classrooms?"

(Note: Step 4 above was to be only partially completed in the initial analysis and continued in collaboration with the other analysts and advisory panel members at a meeting in April 1979.)

c. Socio-emotional development of students

Drs. Joanne R. Whitmore and Colet M. Hopkins were asked to analyze the data in terms of teachers' impact on the socioemotional development of their students. They proposed the following working hypothesis and method for data analysis:

> The teacher should facilitate the use of constructive group dynamics within the classroom, conscientiously plan for the development of social awareness and skills with individuals and the group, and utilize the peer social structure to increase self-management and to attain other educational goals.

The data would be examined from the educational psychology perspective, with particular emphasis on the development of three sets of attitudes and behaviors: positive individual self-concepts, group self-image, and social skills. A schematic representation of the categories selected for examination is illustrated below:

Individual Self-Concept	Group Self-Image	Social Skills
self-selection	acceptance of individual and cultural differences	cooperation
self-pacing		leadership
self-evaluation	group rewards and sanctions	responsible behavior

Dr. Whitmore and Dr. Hopkins believed that these categories of socioemotional development would be evinced in behavioral descriptions of active communication skills (listening and expression), problem-solving skills, decision-making skills, and responsible behavior.

It was proposed that four major questions be considered:

- Do the four selected teachers of the Multi-Ethnic School Environments Project facilitate and reinforce the use of the above-named categories of behaviors?
- Are these categories of behaviors emphasized in the expressed philosophy of the selected teachers?
- Are there significant discrepancies between the expressed philosophy and teacher behavior when these categories are considered?
- Do differential interactive effects exist that may account for student and teacher behaviors?

In addition, the analysis would include significant events and interactions that might be of interest to further studies of multi-ethnic school environments.

Strategy for Data Analysis:

The following procedures were suggested for the analysis of the data:

1) Review the entire data set
2) Code and index instances of the named behavior categories
3) Graph frequency of occurrences of the named behavior categories
4) Identify significant patterns of interaction
5) Discuss the significance of the observations with an emphasis on applications for teacher education

It was recognized that modifications might occur in both the working hypothesis and the strategy for data analysis after the entire data set was received and reviewed.

d. Anticipatory socialization for tomorrow's society

Dr. Gene N. Levine specified two purposes in his plan of analysis:

1) An over-all purpose, in analyzing the MESE Project materials, to identify didactic, social, and other problems that arise in desegregated classrooms in order to contribute to the development of training guides for teachers facing such situations.
2) An ancillary focus, locating factors in the classroom setting that serve to promote or hinder the development of interracial and interethnic ties among pupils.

Dr. Levine approached the materials (observations, interviews with teachers, teachers' diaries) with a normative model that was derived a priori. Using the ideal norms that compose the model, he maintained that one could first iden-

tify working norms that diverge from the ideal, and second, conditions that work toward or against fulfillment of the requirements of the ideal norm. He provided two examples of the ideal norms governing the behavior of the good (i.e., the ideal) teacher and pupil:

a) Most importantly, the teacher believes he ought to be and is expected by his role partners to be universalistic in his dealings with students. No differential treatment based upon sex, color, class, or religion is allowable. But it has been supposed that in practice middle-class teachers, whatever their own color, may tend to treat pupils differently--albeit without intent--according to class origin, or that white teachers tend to approach black or Mexican American students differently from whites. However, an initial look at the MESE Project materials suggests the occurrence of a more complex process, which intensive analysis will later confirm or disconfirm: the middle-class teacher may indeed accord minority children differential treatment, but not to disfavor them. Minority children may, in fact, be the objects of subtle favoritism--With what effects upon them and upon their majority peers?

b) For their part, pupils ought to be achievement-oriented. They ought to want, within their capacity, to learn as much as possible in order to heighten their prospects of social and economic advancement. It has been supposed that working-class children or those from disprivileged minority groups would be less motivated to achieve than pupils of middleclass backgrounds; or, alternatively, that disprivileged children have goals like those of middleclass children, but are either thwarted in or deflected from achieving them. Parental aspirations aside, children's goals are worked out in the classroom with teachers and peers. Do the MESE data reveal ways in which the socioeconomic

aspirations of pupils of diverse backgrounds--both boys and girls--evidence themselves in school? And how is the expression of indication of pupils' goals rewarded (or ignored) by teachers and by peers?

Although a primary emphasis was to be placed upon teacher-student interaction, Dr. Levine also intended to focus upon pupil-pupil relationships. Here, too, a model was being readied against which to assess observed behavior among students. The mode was to take into account sex, race and ethnicity, ability, performance, and (so far as possible) personality. Primary questions would be: To what extent had integration come about among pupils in the desegregated classrooms under study? What mechanisms appeared to make for or to forestall the development of integration?

An initial reading of the array of MESE Project observational materials, interviews, and journals would be used to determine the extent to which qualitative or quantitative techniques would be employed. One could measure the frequency with which certain kinds of behavior occur--for example, rewards given to pupils for good performance, by sex and by stock; or classroom exchanges between pupils of different origin, by sex. Some working norms governing classroom interaction could thus be supported by quantitative documentation. Others could only be approached qualitatively--by fixing upon episodes (perhaps singular) in the field notes and asking: Why did that happen? What rule was being enforced, modified, or developed?

The four data analysts' findings regarding the issues described in this section appear in Volume III of this report. Any deviations the analysts made from the strategies as presented here are explained in that volume. Conclusions are then drawn by the research staff, synthesizing the findings of the four analysts' reports and the case studies produced by the FWL staff.

Observation 10
Teacher 3
Observer 3A
Date 10/31/78

APPENDIX A

SAMPLE OF ETHNOGRAPHER'S DAILY NARRATIVE

The observer is located in the chair by the paper cabinet. The day is clear, slightly cloudy. At 8:45 the warning bell rings. The class is already in the room and standing in line, waiting, while another student is engraving pens at table H. At 8:50, the tardy bell rings. At 8:54, the teacher enters the room, and the aide enters the room through the north door. The students are at table H engraving pens. The teacher goes over to table H, stands, watches, with a slight smile, and blows a sharp blast on the whistle. The students begin cleaning up. The teacher goes over to his desk, and begins collecting money from the students who have sold the pen sets. He calls the students over one by one, asking who sold pen sets. Randy has sold all of his pens, and asks the teacher, energetically, "If you get more pens, can I have some? I can sell them all." Randy's standing on the south side of the teacher's desk with both hands on the teacher's table, leaning forward. Randy finds two pen packets on the typing table near where he's standing. He picks them up and asks, hopefully, "Can I have these?" The teacher frowns slightly, and asks firmly, "Where did you find those?" Randy hands the pens to the teacher. The teacher holds up the pens and asks a question of the class, loudly, "Whose are these?" Vanessa (B1) points to herself with a shy, sheepish smile. The teacher observes her, and says firmly, with slightly raised eyebrows, "I didn't mark these down, and I didn't know you left them there." Vanessa replies with a soft, "Oh," and the teacher says, softly to himself as he marks down the pens, "Okay." The teacher stands up at his desk, and says firmly to the class, "Anyone else with pens, or money, or parents' conference slips? I don't have parents' conference slip from--" he reads the names of Jason, Beth, Randy, Lily, Jake, Terry, Julia and Tilly. The students whose names have been read look up at the teacher, and the teacher goes back to his desk, turns, and says to Mary, "Okay, get started." Mary hops up from her seat (C3), swings around, and says, haltingly, "Ready, begin." The students say the pledge of allegiance to the flag, and, at the finish, immediately sing one verse of, "My Country 'Tis Of Thee." Most of the students stand as they sing this, but a few begin sitting as they sing. The teacher interrupts sharply in the song, "You don't have to stand." Most students are now sitting. Ann still stands, and the students finish the song. Mary begins the self improvement pledge, holding the long wooden pointer. She points at the words at the top of the clock, and the students recite the words, "Day by day, in every way, I get better and better." They recite in a

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APPENDIX B

SAMPLE OF ETHNOGRAPHER'S DAILY LOG

Time:	Activity:	Description: (Teacher Mr. Lewis Day 10)
8:45	Warning Bell	Class already in Students engraving pens
8:50	Tardy Bell	Teacher collects money from students for pen sets
9:00	Pledge to flag & song	Students sing "My Country 'Tis of Thee"
	Self-improvement pledge	Mary leads class in pledge
9:05	Dyad blending	Students do exercises in triads
9:11	Listening lesson	Teacher reads, asks questions;
9:30	" "	students listen and verbally answer; teacher discusses story.
9:33	Sharing Experiment	
10:05	P.E.	Students go outside and do laps.
	Recess	Class stays outside for recess.
10:40	End recess	Class in (bell late)
10:43	Fantasy	Students fantasize individually
10:53	Discussion circle	Students verbally relate their fantasies
11:15	" "	Students pick new team captains
11:18	P.E. football	Class out
11:45	End football	Class in Human body Teacher reviews homework with students
11:53	Lunch bell	Class out (bell late) Students in for recess to change into costumes
1:00	End lunch	Class in already (bell late)
1:05	Math Work Period	
1:30	Parade	Class out--costumed students parade; rest of class watches on playground
1:45	End Parade	Class in
	Halloween Treats	Shea and Paul's mothers provide treats for class
1:50	Recess	Class out
2:10	End recess	Class in
	Work period	Students work on assigments Teacher in chair (in the front) corrects students' work and reassigns work; free time for students finished with assignments
2:45	Clean up	
2:52	End class	Class out (bell late) Some students stay and get help from teacher on their work

APPENDIX C

ISSUES SUMMARY*

1. Describe and document with specific examples what you feel to be the problems your teacher faces (if any) with the class in terms of organizing instruction, student discipline, or the administration.

2. Describe any incidents or trends concerning differential treatment of students by the teacher in terms of academic approach or discipline (i.e., by sex, race, ethnicity, or academic ability).

3. Who is/are the student(s) who has(ve) the most trouble adjusting to the classroom and the teacher's system of instruction and classroom management? (You might want to answer questions 3 and 5 together.

4. What has changed about the classroom during the time you have been observing? (Consider both the teacher's instructional system and interactions with the students, as well as any changes in the students' peer relationships.)

5. Are there any social outcasts in the class?

6. What appear to be the social groupings in the class?--Who works with, helps, plays with, fights with, makes fun of, whom?

7. Do you have any thoughts about the classroom and school in terms of the district's goals for desegregation?

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* These questions were addressed by the ethnographers after half of the observation period had been completed.

APPENDIX D

FINAL SUMMARIZING TASKS

Task #1: Instructional System

1. Teaching Philosophy
2. Instructional Approaches to Subject Areas
   a. Grouping
   b. Scheduling
   c. Curriculum
3. Impediments to Instructional Flow
4. Changes of Plans
5. Pace
6. Monitoring Learning

Categories used for classifying instructional formats:

Teacher-led whole class activities
    recitation
    lecturing
Teacher-led small groups
Student-led small groups
Independent seatwork
Peer tutoring
Role of Aide
Individual instruction (one-on-one)

Categories used for classifying monitoring:

Testing
Teacher roves while students work
Students approach teacher with assignments
Role of aide

Task #2: Classroom Socialization

1. Classroom Management (comparison of teacher interview and observed behavior)
   a. Sanctioning style
   b. Personalized/non-personalized
   c. Whole-group

Task #2: Classroom Socialization (Continued)

2. Rules in Operation
   a. Procedural--classroom routines
   b. Academic--related to learning activities
   c. Ethical--value inculcation of students
   d. Talking
   e. Mobility
3. Role of the Other Personnel in the Classroom
4. Which Students Were Having Problems Adjusting
   a. Academic problems
   b. Rule violators
   c. Social ostracism
   d. Peer sanctioning
   e. Differential treatment
   f. Problems specific to segregation
5. Student Leaders
   a. Academic
   b. Social
6. Friendship Patterns

Task #3: Social Integration

1. Description of the relationships between the bussed and the indigenous students (e.g., evidence of friendships, accommodation, interest or curiosity, tension, and hostility).
2. Critical events or interactions related to personal relations in the classroom.
3. What did the teacher do to encourage understanding and acceptance among students?
4. Relationship of school administration or district to events in the classroom.

Task #4: Student Profiles

A description of each student in terms of physical appearance and information about his/her behavior in the classroom.

Tasks #5 and #6: Technical Assistance Recommendations--Problems, Skills

The purpose of these final tasks is to provide comparative summary information about the realities of our four classrooms and the implications we as a group can draw for generalizing this experience to technical assistance needs in this and other districts.

1. Generate list of issues or themes important for assessing desegregation and post-desegregation/integration in the classroom community. We have at present a list of issues generated (11/30), as well as some "issue clusters" that STRIDE has dealt with:

   equality of opportunity
   fairness
   pluralism
   minimizing communicational misunderstanding
   conflict resolution
   handling differential skills

2. Apply these themes in looking at three dimensions of each classroom in terms of both successful and unsuccessful teacher approaches/extant situations.
   a. Classroom Management (socialization/social control function)
   b. Learning (instruction: techniques, curriculum)
   c. Value (moral education: self-esteem, respect, acceptance)
3. Group session extracts commonalities, differential effectiveness of techniques, and technical assistance recommendations--providing a guide to data analysts for understanding these classrooms and the district.

End Product: To Answer Two Questions:

--What do these teachers do that could be extracted as useful or appropriate techniques for helping other teachers?

--What problems do these teachers face and/or deal with ineffectively that must typically be addressed in desegregating schools?

APPENDIX E

Initial Teacher Interview Questionnaire

I. Background

1. Teacher number
2. Age
3. Educational Background
4. Number of years teaching
5. Number of years teaching in this district
6. Number of years teaching in this school
7. Teaching experience with minorities (describe)

II. Teaching Philosophy

8. Describe yourself as a teacher. What are your beliefs about teaching? What perspectives, approaches, books, etc. have influenced your thinking and practice?
9. What do you feel are your strengths and weaknesses as a teacher?
10. What are your overall goals as a teacher for your students in terms of what you would like them to take with them from being in your class?

III. Impressions of the School

11. How would you characterize this school as compared with other teaching experiences you have had?
12. How would you describe yourself in terms of your relationship with the faculty and the principal?
13. Do you make use of other teachers as a resource? Do you find that they use you as a resource?
14. What is the general atmosphere of the school in terms of teachers' morale?
15. What sort of preparation was there by the district or the school administration to orient teachers to the requirements of, or the fallout from, the voluntary desegregation program?

IV. Aides and Other Resource Teachers

16. Do you have a classroom aide? Describe her/him.
17. (If "yes" to question 16) how have you structured the way the aide's time is used?
18. Do you have parent participation in the classroom?
19. (If yes to question 18) what do they do?
20. How has it worked out (i.e., do students seem to be enjoying it, how many parents have been involved, etc.)?
21. Does the school have resource teachers who instruct all or some of your class?
22. Are you bilingual?
23. Are there any ESL students assigned to you?
24. Do you do any instructional exchange or team teaching with other teachers?

V. Students

25. How are students assigned to your classroom (i.e., randomly, homogeneously, by ability, etc.)?
26. What information is available to you about the students' past performance?
27. Have you needed, wanted, and/or made use of this information to aid you in planning or in some other way?

VI. Expectations

28. Has the beginning of the school year been different from your previous experiences?
29. How is this group of students shaping up in terms of the plans you have for implementing your instructional plans and your regular routines and classroom management procedures?
30. What have your feelings about busing been? Have they changed from before the voluntary busing was implemented, and since?

31. How do you feel you have been affected in terms of your teaching, and personally, by the desegregation effort?

32. Do you know teachers who have worked in the kinds of schools from which the bused students have come?

33. How do you feel the desegregation plan has affected the school as a whole?

VII. Curriculum

34. How are curriculum materials selected for your classroom?

35. Have you worked with the curriculum materials previously? For how long?

36. Does the faculty work together to make decisions about curriculum or use each other as resources?

37. Have you/do you plan to teach multicultural education? What does/will this consist of?

38. What assistance has the district provided you personally or other teachers whom you know about in the school (inservice training, resources, etc.)?

39. What sort of communication and relationship exists between the school and the district?

VIII. Instructional System

Describe the (A) instructional methods, (B) curriculum, (C) relative emphasis given for the subject areas you will be teaching:

40. Reading

41. Math

42. Language

43. Social Studies

44. Spelling

45. Science

46. Art

47. Music

48. Physical Education

49. Affective Education

50. Other

51. How do you group for instruction?

52. Scheduling: What does a typical day and week look like in your classroom? What kinds of considerations go into your decisions about the sequence of activities?

53. How flexible is your scheduling of instructional activities?

54. From the time that school opened, describe how you planned to get students to the point where your instructional system would be in place.

55. What were your priorities in implementing your instructional system (i.e., diagnosis, classroom procedures)?

56. About how long did it take to get your class "into shape" this year?

57. How did you determine when things had fallen into place?

58. Have any specific problems arisen that have interfered with getting your class going this year?

59. Have you made any changes in your plans for organizing your class since the beginning of the year (e.g., curriculum, scheduling, grouping, instructional activities)?

IX. Classroom Management

60. Let's say you get a new student or a substitute in the classroom, and you have the opportunity to orient him/her to the way the classroom operates. What would he/she need to know in order to function in the classroom in terms of procedures and routines that you have established?

61. How do you conceive of maintaining discipline or order in the classroom? PROBE: techniques teacher uses to sanction students. What are the ways that you reward and/or punish students for their appropriate/inappropriate behavior?

62. (If you have an aide) what role have you set up for the aide as far as responsibilities for disciplining students?

63. So far this year, how would you compare this class to your previous classes in terms of the ease or difficulty in managing the class.

64. Have you tried anything different this year from what you usually use in terms of classroom management?

X. Intrusions

65. We have discussed problems that have impeded you so far this year, but there are some intrusions that are typically a part of school life which I'd like you to discuss; for example, achievement testing, paperwork, school responsibilities such as yard duty, committee work, other meetings, and anything else you might think of.

APPEND.X F

Guidelines for Teachers' Daily Reports

1. Give an overall impression of the day and any significant events which occurred.
2. Describe in detail the specific activities you undertook during the day and how you felt about them.
3. Indicate any problems you had during the day with students.
4. Indicate any problems you had during the day in terms of intrusions on the classroom, or developments within the school.
5. Describe any changes in plans you may have made and the reasons for them.
6. Reflect on any insights you may have gained about your students or about your teaching methods.

Guidelines for Teachers' Weekly Reports

1. Reflecting back on the week, discuss in general how things are progressing.
2. Consider any areas that you are concerned about improving in the classroom.
3. What problems, if any, have presented themselves this week? What are you doing about them?
4. What students are having difficulty adjusting to your classroom? What more do you know about the nature of their problem or the effectiveness of your approach(es) to them?

Observation ___
Teacher ___4___
Observer _____
Date 10-24-78 (Tuesday)

APPENDIX G

SAMPLE OF TEACHER"S DAILY REPORT

When I came into the classroom, I really wanted to cover a lot of material in that period that I call my own. I like to think of 8:50 to 9:30 as my very own period when I can discuss, read, share, sing, motivate whatever. I like to think of that period as a coming together, as a being stimulated, being motivated, seeing everybody smile, everybody feeling good warm vibes from me: a very, very happy happy beginning. Several times I have been told by teachers that in the mornings I am always so cheerful, I come in with such smiles. I am always so happy. And I am that way, because I feel that way. I am happy to be at school. I am happy to go to school. I feel that things are going good with what I am doing in my job and what I see what the children are doing, and of course, there are always these little challenges of who I have to get to, who I need to reach, who I have to help grow, etc. We started with concentrating on the rug area where we have our meetings. I wanted that area perfect. I wanted it clean, swept, everything in its place. My classroom tends to be very messy, because it is very busy, and there are many things going on at once, and so it's not unusual to have it very cluttered up. And I began with rounding up with children and starting with vacuuming the chairs, putting papers away, fixing the books, getting the windows open, erasing the blackboard, making the area just really nice and attractive. As it turned out, as children arrived, Roberta had a little shoe box, and I could see that it was really stuffed and so I asked her, "What are you going to do with that shoe box". You could see the little box bursting with whatever it was in it. And so she said she had a collection of dishes and I said, "Super. What are you going to do with them?" And so she said she had brought it to share. Then I asked her, "Well, how long are you to keep them with us?" And she said that she would have to take it home that day. Her parents would want her to take it home, and so then, in order to share, I did not say, "Open it up. Let me see"this sort of thing. I just kept asking little questions to see what this was all about. I wanted her to tell me. I didn't want to interfere with whatever her plans were. So I said, "Well, let's use the bench, and let's set it up in the bench", and with this, we begin to put things on the bench and I had a lot of activity going on in that area with dishes being set up and etc. About that time, Rhonda showed up and Betty was with her and she also had a collection. She had brought a collection of bugs in little tiny bottles, and I took a look at some of these, and so I asked her, "What are you going to do with

APPENDIX H

EXIT INTERVIEW WITH TEACHERS

THE STUDENTS

1. Compare this class with others you have had.

2. Concerning the students, who are the student leaders in your classroom?

3. Did the leaders emerge since the beginning of school? And have you related to them in any way to utilize their leadership in the classroom?

4. Discuss the problem children in your classroom. Have they changed, improved, or gotten to be more of a problem? Tell us about the ways you have tried to deal with them. Evaluate the effectiveness of your approaches.

5. What do you know now about your students that you didn't know in the beginning of the year that has affected your decisions?

6. If you could control more resources, reassign students to other classrooms, change the curriculum, etc., what might you do to improve things for your students and yourself?

7. Explain why you enjoyed working with your aide.

8. If you could tell your aide how to improve, what would you say?

THE PROFESSION

1. If you were in charge of or could influence the policy of teacher education schools (preservice teacher training), what advice would you give about effective training?

2. The most important area, issue, or skill that most teachers could use technical assistance in when they deal with (inservice) training would be what?

3. If you were to seek technical assistance to help you cope with problems that you face in the teaching profession, what would it concern?

4. Discuss what you feel to be the main problems that you have had to cope with this year, first, regarding anything that resulted from the desegregation program, and second, anything else.

5. If you could turn back the calendar and be back in the weeks before the school year started, what might you have benefited from in terms of district inservice training?

6. Describe how you feel about teaching now as opposed to the beginning of the year (e.g., the same, more enthusaistic, more or less organized, burnt out, encouraged, etc.).

OPEN-ENDED DISCUSSION

Ethnographers pose any issues about teacher philosophy or practice that need to be explored: they solicit teachers' opinions about any relevant teachers' concerns.

APPENDIX I

AGENDA FOR MULTI-ETHNIC SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT'S
FIRST SUMMIT MEETING, DECEMBER 13-14

	ANALYSTS	ADVISORY PANEL
1.	Description of the multidisciplinary nature of the study. Examination of the goals of the study for application to teacher training. Posing the question: How can interdisciplinary approach to data analysis be organized? Assignment of tasks for analysts and advisory panel.	
2.	Familiarization with the data by reading the data set description and sample package. Preparation of individual reactions for discussion with total group.	Discussion of the process for looking at the available information in light of the objectives raised in orientation. Preparation of lists of recommendations for total group discussion.
3.	Recommendations from both groups are read and discussed.	
4.	Meet as a group to discuss ways to inter-relate independent analyses. Generate tentative overall data analysis strategy.	Discussion of function of advisory group. Set realistic expectations for production of drafts. Discuss feasibility of methods for monitoring progress of analysis (e.g., conference calls).
5.	Analysts present their report; advisory group reacts. Recommendations and arrangements for future work.	

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